The Outlook

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THE SAN FRANCISCO FAIR

Unlike most great expositions, the San Francisco Fair apparently opens on time. More than this, it is asserted that it opens in a state that is almost completion. The final arrangements have been made, as The Outlook goes to press, for the opening of the Fair on February 20, and in celebration of the event Governor Johnson has declared this date a legal holiday.

The great halls shown in the picture section of this week's Outlook have already in place almost their entire quota of exhibits. Apparently, from the accounts of the Fair, not one of the familiar items of industrial display that have been shown in the past will be absent from this the greatest of World's Fairs. More than this, in such fields as transportation, agriculture, and machinery the exhibition, it is expected, will prove to have been without precedent.

Of particular interest is the great exhibit in the building devoted to the Liberal Arts. Upon this the war has had a surprisingly beneficial effect. Treasures from the Old World which otherwise would never have been removed from their places in famous galleries are on their way to the United States in the Government collier Jason—the Christmas ship which carried the great load of toys to the children of Europe—in order that they might be protected from the ravages of war in the event that opposing armies should lay waste still undamaged cities. All the exhibits from the belligerent nations are coming to this country in this vessel. Spain, Italy, Greece, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, sent exhibits in their own ships. In addition to these exhibits two complete collections intended for foreign display have been added to the splendid features of the Fine Arts Department. One of these collections was assembled for the triennial fine arts exhibit at Venice—postponed on account of the war; the other collection was assembled in the galleries at the White City Exposition in London, which was closed and the galleries turned into barracks for the colonial troops. In addition to the two foreign collections there are many pictures which were first intended for the Carnegie Exhibition at Pittsburgh. This was later abandoned because of the greater drawing power of the San Francisco Fair.

BUSINESS AND THE GOVERNMENT

It is a wholesome thing at a time like this, when there is uncertainty in business, for business men to do what the members of the Merchants' Association in New York City did last week—get together and have their doubts and questionings frankly examined and discussed. No man in business ever won success by avoiding issues. At any rate, that is what the Merchants' Association seems to believe. At its "Members' Council," which gathered at the luncheon hour last week Wednesday, there were several addresses on business conditions as affected by Governmental action. The discussion which these addresses constituted was of special importance in view of the recently enacted law creating the Federal Trade Commission and the fact that the President is soon to name the members of the Commission.

The United States Commissioner of Corporations, Mr. Joseph E. Davies, whom many expect to be the Chairman of the new Commission, explained the Commission's functions as he understood them. It is particularly cheering to know that he regards it as one of its most important functions to act "as an agency . . . to aid expeditiously in the more easy accommodation . . . of business to the requirements of the law." It has been feared that the Commission would become a sort of detective agency for ferreting out misdeeds and putting all business, especially successful business, under suspicion. Mr. Davies's speech was of the sort to give

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reassurance on this point. It is true he emphasized investigation, but investigation for the sake of collating and digesting a large body of information concerning the constitution of modern industry which would be available for the benefit and guidance of all business enterprise, both great and small. Mr. Davies also pointed out that the Commission is charged with investigating conditions in foreign countries "with reference to their effect upon our export trade." It is this information, he said, that is needed to determine whether combinations among smaller manufacturers and dealers in this country are needed and can be permitted in order to compete with foreign combinations. This, too, is welcome; for if it is discovered that combination is not a crime so long as it is for the purpose of promoting efficiency in gaining foreign markets, those who now look askance on business if it is big may come to see that combination is not necessarily a crime for the purpose of promoting efficiency in the service of the people at home.

BUSINESS MEN AND POLITICIANS

At this gathering of the Merchants' Association of New York not only was a broad-minded statement made from the point of view of the Government official, but one was also made from the point of view of the business man. Mr. William Hamlin Childs, President of the American Coal Products Company, discussed the attitude of business men toward the Trade Commission. A great deal of the trouble with business lately he attributed to lack of mutual confidence between business men and the Administration.

He said that in his opinion the attitude of the Administration was due to two errors: one, the error of thinking that the interest of business men as a class can be separated from the general welfare; the other, the error of believing that business men as a class are not as ready as any other class to consider public welfare paramount. He quoted from Secretary Bryan and Secretary Redfield to show how this suspicion of business men had been expressed. He also illustrated his point by citing instances which showed the ignorance of Congressmen concerning business affairs.

On the other hand, he was quite as emphatic in exposing the ignorance of ordinary business men concerning Governmental affairs. As he put it, "they did not know whether the Clayton Bill was a laundry bill or a brother to Buffalo: and yet the Clayton Bill, if passed as first introduced, would have revolutionized the business of the whole country and thrown it into the deepest confusion." He urged business men to consider the visions of dreamers which they were wont to despise—"to support the visionary in his studies, and then, with full understanding of the question, to act as a great gyroscopic stabilizer to make these visions safe and practical."

He welcomed the growth of public opinion in favor of treating the tariff scientifically by a proper tariff commission. He asked that business men co-operate with the Government in working out the experiment of a Federal Trade Commission. He asserted that business men do not care whether the members of that Commission are Republicans, Democrats, Progressives, or Independents, so long as they have integrity and ability and a majority of them have experience in business. He likened business men to sailors in a harbor waiting for a chart. They have been bewildered because Mr. Bryan had a buoy in one place, President Wilson a buoy in another place, and then both buoys had been taken up and another buoy put somewhere else. It was no wonder, he said, that business men were bewildered. In conclusion, he said to Commissioner Davies and to the Administration he represents, "Our ships lie at anchor with chains taut, sailors at the windlass. Give us a sailing chart we can trust, and we will at once set sail for the Harbor of Confidence and Prosperity!"

THE SHIP PURCHASE BILL

Early in the morning of Wednesday of last week—it was about half-past one—the House of Representatives passed the Administration Ship Purchase Bill by a vote of 215 to 122. The final vote followed a continuous session running on from eleven o'clock Tuesday morning. Even as it was, the passage of the bill was made possible only by the previous passage of a special rule—called by the opponents of the bill "gag law"—limiting debate to eight hours. An attempt to put a stop to the filibuster in the Senate by a similar rule was expected, but it seems at this writing more than doubtful if such a procedure is possible there.

This question of shutting off debate by

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special rules in the nature of closure called out quite recently a vigorous protest to the Senate from Senator Root on the question of relations of the conscience of the individual Senator to the party caucus. In the course of his remarks Senator Root said: "Any agreement made beforehand by which Senators bind themselves not to consider, not to discuss with an open mind to arguments that are made upon the merits of a measure, not to vote in accordance with their individual judgment, is a violation of their oath, is an abandonment and a negation of the constitutional government of the United States and the substitution for it of an extra-constitutional and unconstitutional method of government."

The Ship Purchase Bill which has just passed the lower house was immediately brought before the Senate, which still had under consideration that Ship Purchase Bill which has so long blocked the way in the Senate to other much-needed action. Whether it is possible to get the Senate to agree on any form of Ship Purchase bill may be known before these words are read; as we write, both sides of the controversy stand firm, and apparently the Administration's majority, if it succeeds in obtaining one, cannot be more than by one vote.

The bill that has passed the lower house gives the proposed Ship Purchase Board a term of existence of two years. After that time, ships which have been bought may be turned over to the Secretary of the Navy, who, with the President's approval, would decide whether the ships should be retained by the Government as freight carriers or changed into naval auxiliary vessels, with power to the Secretary of the Navy to lease the ships to private companies. Otherwise the bill does not differ essentially from that which has been before the Senate.

Meanwhile an investigation has been begun under a resolution of the Senate to find out whether there is any truth in the rumors, on the one hand, that certain shipping interests have been working against the passage of the Administration measure, and, on the other, that influence had been brought to bear on Government officials to press the bill in the interest of ship-owners who have vessels to sell. A further discussion of this subject of Government-owned ships is to be found in an article in this issue by Senator Lodge and in an editorial on another page.

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Two very important announcements have just been made in the British Parliament. One is by Mr. Lloyd George, Chancellor, concerning the recent conference of the Finance Ministers of Great Britain, France, and Russia in Paris. It has been persistently rumored that as a result of this conference a joint loan would be issued by the three countries. The Chancellor says that this loan will not be made, because of the difficulty in floating a loan issued by three unequal partners. For instance, Great Britain can finance such a war as the present for five years out of the proceeds of her investments abroad, if we are to believe Mr. Lloyd George, but France could not do this for as long a period. Russia is in a different position still, he added, because, although rich in natural resources, her financial arrangements are not so productive as are those of her allies. It should be noted, however, asserted the Chancellor, that Russia has increased her productivity from thirty to forty per cent by abolishing the sale of vodka.

Mr. Lloyd George's most interesting statement was that concerning the expenditure of the Allies on the war during the present calendar year, which expenditure he estimated at ten billion dollars, Great Britain spending the lion's share.

The second important announcement was that of Mr. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, in introducing the navy estimates. "The navy," he declared, is "as sound as a bell;" nevertheless he was not blinded to the seriousness of the outlook in view of Germany's new threat concerning the English Channel and the Irish Sea. "We shall, of course, redouble our efforts," declared Mr. Churchill. "Hitherto we have not attempted to stop the imports of food, and have not prevented neutral ships from trading direct with German ports. We have allowed German exports in neutral ships to pass unchallenged. The time has come when the enjoyment of those immunities by a state which has, as a matter of deliberate policy, placed herself outside all international obligations must be reconsidered. A further declaration on the part of the allied Governments will be promptly made. It will have the effect for the first time of applying the full force of naval pressure on the enemy."

This utterance of the First Lord of the Admiralty has been universally inter-

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preted to mean a blockade of the German coast.

THREE OTHER PARLIAMENTS

No less interesting and noteworthy were the meetings of three other Parliaments—the Canadian, the Prussian, and the Russian.

In Canada racial diversity was illustrated by the mover and seconder of the address in reply to the Governor-General's speech. One of the members was a German, the other a Frenchman. We are accustomed to the spectacle of the French in Quebec; we are not so much accustomed to that of the Germans in Ontario and elsewhere in Canada. This adds particular interest to the remarks of Mr. Weichel in the Dominion Parliament. He represents a constituency in which are many Canadians of German birth. Speaking for them, he said:

> German-Canadians are proud of the race from which they sprung; proud of the progress that country has made in science, in art, in music, in literature, in philosophy, in chemistry; gratefully remembering the splendid literary works of Schiller and Goethe; proud of the wonderful compositions of Mendelssohn, Mozart, Hayden, Bach, Liszt, and Wagner. But, sir, they are not proud of the violation of the neutrality of Belgium, of the burning of Louvain, nor of the destruction of the Rheims Cathedral. German art, German music, German science, is one thing; but Prussian militarism is another; and the reason why so many people of German origin have left their old fatherland was to escape military domination; and to-day they are just as eager and anxious as you are for the obliteration of this curse which has been weighing so heavily on Europe for so many years.

The Prussian and Russian Parliaments opened on the same day. In both a determination to continue the war was generally expressed. But in the Prussian Landtag two Socialist members boldly declared that, in their opinion, the German people were tired of war and wanted peace. Query: Do not Herren Liebknecht and Hirsch, the members in question, reflect a growing feeling of discontent and discouragement among the people? Nor did the Socialists fail to utter their now time-honored protest against a system by which a comparatively few wealthy voters still control the elections in Prussia.

In the Russian Duma the people spoke through the well-known tribune Miliukov, and the Government by the Prime Minister, who, after asserting that there had been no oppression of the Jews (!), as has been charged, declared that Russia was in a fair way to possess Galicia (Austrian Poland) and to obtain her lifelong ambition—Constantinople and free access to the Mediterranean.

RELIEF: BELGIUM

The Belgian Relief Fund now totals nearly a million dollars in cash, over $700,000 in foodstuffs, and something under $40,000 in clothing. Only cash contributions are now desired. They will be promptly turned into food for rush shipment to the famine zones of Belgium. Cash placed in the hands of this fund at 10 Bridge Street, New York City, will insure the most expeditious, economical, and intelligent purchase of the required foodstuffs, and will also secure maximum speed in the carrying and distributing. The Fund's exceptional facilities mean that, for every dollar contributed, ninety-nine cents' worth of food actually reaches the mouths of starving Belgians. By arrangement with the Commission for Relief in Belgium, it has sent out by the steamship Great City the most valuable cargo ever shipped by us to a foreign people.

The American Red Cross makes a similar record, its administrative expenses not exceeding one per cent. Several hundred bales and cases of bandages and other articles sent by it to the Belgian Red Cross have reached their destination, as have over fifty boxes of clothing sent by it for the Belgian refugees in Holland. The American Legation at The Hague has stated that every package and article sent by the American Red Cross has been properly delivered.

The Commission for Relief in Belgium has now forty-seven ships engaged in carrying foodstuffs to that country. Perhaps the most interesting sailing has been that of the South Point, whose cargo of flour, valued at half a million dollars, has been given by the millers of America. The cargo is in charge of Mr. William C. Edgar, editor of the "Northwestern Miller," who will superintend its unloading. It is interesting to note that Mr. Edgar's previous sailing from New York, twenty-three years ago, was also when he was in charge of a relief ship laden with a cargo contributed by the millers of America. It went to Russia for the benefit of those living in the famine-ridden area of that country.

An erroneous statement has been made to the effect that the Rockefeller Foundation has relinquished its Belgian relief work.

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This is not true; the Foundation has simply delegated its transportation activities to the American Commission for Relief in Belgium. The Rockefeller Foundation has already spent a great amount in Belgian relief. The total amount given by Americans to this end, whether in contributions of cash or goods, would seem to be in the neighborhood of seven million dollars.

RELIEF: POLAND

Special attention should be directed towards Poland, for the conditions there are now revealed to be worse than those in Belgium. From direct sources The Outlook learns that throughout Russian, Prussian, and Austrian Poland some five hundred hamlets, towns, and cities have already been devastated by the war, and that in this devastation, whether by Russians or by Prussians, a clean sweep of homes, furniture, and tools has been made, whereas in Belgium enough buildings have been left standing to constitute considerable shelter and much material has been left untouched. Moreover, while Americans have helped Belgium with great gifts, they have given only a few thousand dollars for Polish relief. A peculiarly poignant circumstance in connection with the general Polish population is that in many cases, owing to the close blood relationship existing on either side of an international boundary, yet one which cuts through what should be one country, the population has been forced to what is really civil war—Russian and Prussian Poles being compelled to face each other on the battlefield.

The agents of the American Red Cross and of the Rockefeller Foundation have been making an investigation in Poland, and report not only wide devastation, but a transportation problem more difficult to solve than the Belgian one, owing to the poor roads and the heavy demands made on the railway cars, motor trucks, and horses for supplying the needs of the troops. The commissioners also report the German Government's issuance of provisions to civilians in Poland; but the rations of bread are perforce limited to only a fifth of a pound per person. Nothing is said as to any aid given by the Russian Government. A despatch from Berlin announces that a German committee has been organized to furnish relief for the civil population of those parts of Russian Poland that are occupied by Germans, and that the residents of Berlin subscribed about $100,000 at the first meeting.

The American-Polish Relief Fund, for non-combatants only, should also receive special support. The celebrated singer Madame Marcella Sembrich is president, and the treasurer may be addressed at 14 East Forty-seventh Street, New York City.

RELIEF: PALESTINE

During January the United States cruiser Tennessee transported from the port of Jaffa, in Palestine, to Alexandria, Egypt, about eight thousand destitute Jews.

We are so accustomed to think of Palestine as "The Holy Land"—as a very important country nineteen hundred years ago, but rather out of mind to-day—as not to realize its present economic condition.

We are therefore fortunate in having the first-hand testimony of a gentleman who recently returned from a visit to Palestine—namely, Mr. Maurice Wertheim, a son-in-law of Ambassador Morgenthau. Mr. Wertheim took from Constantinople to Jaffa the $50,000 which had been contributed by the American Jewish Committee on Ambassador Morgenthau's appeal for relief for the distressed people of the Holy Land.

While in Palestine Mr. Wertheim visited various regions in Judea, Samaria, and Galilee, both to judge of the disaster already wrought by the war and to see what Jewish colonization has accomplished, and in an interview published in the "American Hebrew" he says:

> The possibility of securing foreign markets for the orange crop of the colonists is almost out of the question, and the disposal of the orange crop is a matter of life or death to the settlers in Palestine, particularly as it will be extremely difficult to get relief to them now. Until Turkey was involved there was a chance that some of the crop could be gotten to Liverpool. I now hear that a cargo on its way there has been seized by England. Three hundred thousand dollars' worth of wealth will rot unless a market for it can be secured.

In the "American Hebrew" interview the condition of landowners in Palestine is reported as not giving immediate concern. The Outlook now learns directly from Mr. Wertheim that since then this condition has become precarious, owing to the failure of the arrangement to pass certified checks as currency.

Thus if Belgium and Poland need relief, so does Palestine. The American Consul at Alexandria will act as a depositary and distributing agency for aid to the Palestine

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refugees. Contributions should be made to the Committee for General Zionist Affairs, 44 East Twenty-third Street, New York City, or to Felix M. Warburg, Treasurer of the Palestine Relief Ship Fund, 52 William Street, New York City.

JAPAN AND CHINA

A correspondent of the "New Republic" who signs himself "A Friend of China," and whom we know to be an expert in Eastern matters, brings out some facts on the Eastern situation which Americans will do well to understand and remember. By entering into the present struggle Japan has won a place as a principal, and must be reckoned with in the negotiations which will follow the war. Whatever that settlement may be, it will involve a readjustment of the interests of the Powers in China. Japan has a legitimate ambition to assume the position of leader in the Far East. Her interests are as great as those of China: she is the only organized country in the Orient; she has a highly efficient military power. So far as the United States is concerned, we have no interests whatever in China except those defined years ago by Mr. Hay—the preservation of the integrity of the Empire and of the Open Door. So far as is officially known, neither of these interests is threatened thus far by the Japanese; and guarantees of the equality of commercial opportunity in China would relieve the Japanese assumption of responsibility for the maintenance of stable conditions in the East of any offensive aspect to this country.

China is incapable of self-development without very substantial aid during the next two or three decades, and must be for a number of years under tutelage. She has no choice now except to bring herself in line with the Western peoples; this means the development of her resources, the adoption of Western business ways and methods, and a radical readjustment of industrial conditions. It is the ambition of Japan, which has learned so rapidly and so successfully in the school of Western commercialism and industrialism, to be the teacher and director of China in these matters.

There is no reason why, if Japan keeps faith, she should not gain this position in the Far East. So far as keeping faith is concerned, her promises are entitled to just as much credence as those of any other country. In her early occupation of Manchuria and Korea there was interference by Japan with the trade of other countries; but of late years those who know the situation at first hand declare that the causes of complaint have been removed. Japan earnestly desires to remove the suspicion and dislike with which she is now regarded in China, and to command the confidence and attention of the West. It is stated from Washington that the Japanese Government has pledged itself that nothing in the negotiations now in progress will affect the interests of any third Power in China, and that the negotiations do not look to the acquisition of any Chinese territory by Japan. Every consideration, therefore, should incline her to fair and straight dealing with China; and there is no reason for the apprehension which exists in some quarters in regard to her future intentions.

THE JAPANESE POLITICAL SITUATION

Japan is now passing through the agitation preceding the general election, which will take place on March 25. The failure of a majority in the Imperial Diet to indorse the policy of the Premier and the Ministry in the matter of an increase of the strength of the army was followed by the dissolution of that body. The addition of two divisions in Korea, readers of The Outlook will remember, has been for several years past an acute question in Japan.

Count Okuma, the Prime Minister, has always been a lover of peace, and an eloquent advocate of the policy of husbanding the strength and developing the resources of Japan. He has said in the pages of The Outlook that Japan's supreme need is many years of quiet, internal development. His advocacy, therefore, of the enlargment of the army has not only met with opposition, but has awakened apprehension. The country is laboring under the burden of an almost intolerable taxation incurred in two wars which the Japanese regard as wars to preserve the integrity of the Empire. These taxes have been cheerfully borne by a very patriotic people. They fall very lightly on the poor and very heavily on the well-to-do. But even the well-to-do have become restive; and a policy of retrenchment has been for a number of years past one of the foremost political issues in the country.

The Premier's advocacy of an addition of two divisions in Korea has awakened the

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apprehension that it would arouse the suspicion of Russia, with which Japan has been steadily coming into closer relations for several years past. Count Okuma went into power with all but universal support. He was hailed as the one man whose coming would save the country from the evils it most feared. For many years he has been a kind of "tribune of the people;" a leader in the democratic movement, which in Japan means a larger share of responsibility for the policies of the country in the hands of the people, and the responsibility of the Cabinet to the Diet. His advocacy of the increase of the army has been a shock to many of his supporters; and this shock was made the more acute by the refusal of the Government to accept the proposal of its opponents and postpone the Army Expansion Bill for one year on the passing of the Budget. This action seemed to indicate a present and imperative need for an increase of the army. That need is explained probably by the uncertainties of the military situation in which Japan finds herself as the result of her treaty with Great Britain. She has already met the requirements of that treaty as an active ally of Great Britain by the successful campaign which dislodged the Germans from their foothold in China and arrested the building of a great military and naval station in the Far East.

But that war is not yet over. The Japanese Government is perfectly aware that it has incurred the special enmity of the German war party, and that it has put itself in a position of very considerable peril. The situation in China, too, is one of great uncertainty. Those who know Count Okuma best are assured that his advocacy of the two-division enlargement of the military force of the Empire is due to a desire to protect the Empire, not to enlarge it.

The unrest which is disturbing all the countries in the world is also disturbing Japan. The franchise in that country is still limited to a comparatively small group of men. There are about a million and a half voters in a population of nearly sixty million. The limitation of the franchise is not only irritating to the Japanese people, steadily growing into a consciousness of their power, but it makes manipulations of political parties easy, and charges of corruption are constantly made. The result of the election will be awaited with a great deal of interest. Whether or not the Government will explain in detail why it wishes to put two additional divisions of troops into Korea remains to be seen. In the general uncertainty which prevails, fraught with many serious possibilities, the action of the Government is easily understood; but the Japanese people would like to be taken into its confidence.

H. G. WELLS ON HOLLAND

Mr. H. G. Wells is not a writer whose statements on world politics can be taken without a grain of salt. He is too ready with a prescription for all the evils that flesh is heir to to inspire complete confidence. Nevertheless, he is always, or almost always, picturesque in his statement of opinion, and the picturesque writer not infrequently receives greater attention than the profound thinker. Particularly is this so when a picturesque writer has the advantage of having his efforts suppressed by a censor. For the average person a curtain may almost be described as "something to look behind," and the general characteristic of human nature suggested by this definition is always active wherever a censorship is concerned.

Mr. Wells wrote an article on Holland for publication in an English paper. Promptly the censor decided that the highest interest of his Majesty's Government demanded the suppression of the aforementioned article. Following in the track of many other interesting documents on the present war, Mr. Wells's article found its way to the New York "Times." Doubtless it will now be commented upon in the English reviews. Ultimately it may be permitted to appear in the English dailies.

Mr. Wells asks what changes for Holland are likely to result from the present war. Naturally, this question can be answered only by a consideration of Holland's present position, by a study of what effect success for the Allies or Germany will have on her future, and by a contemplation of her past fears of foreign aggression. Says Mr. Wells:

It is clear that whatever fears may have been felt for the integrity of Holland at the beginning of the war must now be very much abated. The risk of Germany attacking Holland diminishes with each day of German failure, and the whole case and righteousness of the Allies rests upon their respect for Holland. Holland's position as regards Germany now is extraordinarily strong materially, and as regards the Allies it is overwhelmingly strong morally. She has behaved patiently and sanely through a trying

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crisis. She has endured much almost inevitable provocation and temptation with dignity and honesty. Were she now subjected to any German outrage she could strike with her excellent army of 400,000 men at Aix-la-Chapelle, and turn repulse into rapid disaster. . . .

This situation is already fairly obvious; I betray no strategic secret; it must become manifest to every Dutchman before many more weeks. One has but to look at the map. Every day now diminishes the possibility of Germany being able to make any effective counter-attack, any Belgian destruction in Holland, and every day increases the weight of the blow that Holland may deliver. What are the chances that Holland may not ultimately realize to the full the possibilities of that blow and join the Allies?

WILL HOLLAND ENTER THE WAR?

Against Holland entering the war Mr. Wells thinks that satisfaction with her present position will be the largest determining factor. Of course, too, he admits that the possibility that the war may be carried into her own territory will also weigh heavily with her. On the other hand, Mr. Wells asks whether Holland is doing, in the doctor's phrase, "as well as can be expected." An entry into the war he believes would give Holland a very powerful voice in the determination of frontiers which will result from the war. Holland, he says, "desires aggrandizement for the sake of aggrandizement as little as any nation in Europe," but "what if the path of aggrandizement be also the path of safety?" It is clear to Mr. Wells "that both France and Belgium must receive territorial compensation for these last months of horror," that "France and Belgium must push forward their boundaries so far that if ever Germany tries another rush she will have to rush for some days through her own lost lands." Mr. Wells may seem to some a little premature in his prophecies so long as Germany still occupies almost all of Belgium and one-eighth of France! There will be many also who will not see in the destruction of the racial integrity of any nation a hopeful means for the establishment of peace. It has been tried too often and failed. From Mr. Wells's view-point of the outcome of the war, the question he asks in regard to the intention of Holland, however, is not without interest. Suppose that the Dutch do not consider this question of protecting their frontiers now. Mr. Wells says:

> Holland has always been claimed as a part of the great Pan-German scheme, and at any time she may find the German heel upon her face, vindictively punishing her for her lack of enthusiasm for Teutonic brotherhood. Hadn't she better get herself a little larger and stronger now; hadn't she better help to make the ending of the German threat more conclusive, and link herself definitely with the grand alliance of the Western Powers?

We wonder what weight such considerations as are brought forward by Mr. Wells will have with the people of Holland. At least it can be said that she has shown no inclination to relinquish any of her right to full consideration by the belligerent nations. In a recent message to the second chamber of her Legislature her Government voiced this opinion: "The position of our country demands to-day, as it did in August, that our entire military force should be at all times available."

THE SOUTHWESTERN SLAVS

A great problem before the Austro-Hungarian monarchy has been the treatment of the Slavs within the Empire. The late Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne, proposed a clever solution by declaring that the dual should be changed to a triple monarchy—an Austro-Hungarian-Slav Monarchy. But he was murdered before he could put his ideas into effect.

The Austro-Hungarian Slavs are Poles, Bohemians, and Slovaks in the north; Slovenes, Croatians, Slavonians, Bosnians, and Dalmatians in the south. The Slovenes live in South Carinthia and in Carniola, Austrian provinces—in other words, the *hinterland* of the port of Triest—and number about 1,300,000. On the other hand, Croatia and Slavonia, to the south, are Hungarian provinces, with a population of, say, 2,500,000. Still farther south is the Imperial province of Bosnia (population about 2,000,000) and the Austrian province on the Adriatic (population about 700,000). In matters which concern Croatia-Slavonia, in common with Hungary proper, the Hungarian Parliament at Budapest is the legislative authority, and the representatives of these provinces in it may speak their own language if they choose. But for home affairs, public instruction, and justice the provinces enjoy autonomy. The Croatian-Slavonian Provincial Diet, or Parliament, meets every year at Agram, the capital of Croatia and Slavonia, the center of South Slavic learning and influence and

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the forms of Croatian national life. The Diet consists of ninety members, elected for five years. The electors must have a low property qualification, belong to certain professions, or pay a small tax.

The Diet has had a checkered career and has often been held up as an example of what would happen when the Dublin Parliament meets. Indeed, there is a remarkable parallel between Croatia and Ireland. The province was annexed to Hungary not far from the time when Henry II was invading Ireland.

It must be admitted that Hungary has not dealt gently with Croatia. The Croatians, therefore, joined with Austria in crushing Kossuth and the Hungarian Republic.

The most recent disturbances at Agram seem to have been fomented by the Hungarians quite as much as by the Slavs. We are informed that all or nearly all of the members of the Diet were placed under arrest. Some escaped and made their way to Italy. They have now gone to London, where they have met in a congress of their own, taking measures to insure the solidarity of the southern Slavs. This will be the more easily accomplished since all the southwestern Slavs belong practically to one race, the language of which, although separated by marked dialects, is understood more or less everywhere. Including the Serbs, the race numbers between eleven and twelve millions. The distinction between Croats and Serbs is mostly religious and hardly linguistic. Together the Croats and Serbs constitute a single branch of the Slav race. While the two nations have been separated since the seventh century, it will be interesting to see whether the present war will not result in a drawing together in economic and political union of all the southwestern Slavs.

A STATESMAN-EDUCATOR

The death of Dr. George Washburn last week in the eighty-second year of his age brought to a peaceful close a very active and useful life.

In 1863 Dr. Cyrus Hamlin opened Robert College in Constantinople. The college derived its name from Christopher R. Robert, the principal donor to its funds, but its existence was due to Dr. Hamlin's persistent energy. He had overcome the opposition of the Turks and secured, in spite of such opposition, authority from the Turkish Government to buy the land and erect the buildings. He had raised at a very difficult time—the opening of the Civil War in America—the necessary funds. And he had to meet the criticism of the religious conservatives, who complained that he was turning aside from the preaching of the Gospel to secular education. On his retirement in 1870, Dr. Washburn, his son-in-law, succeeded to the presidency of the College, an office which he continued to hold until 1903.

Dr. Washburn was not only a great educator, but also a great statesman. He received the Order of St. Alexander from Prince Alexander of Bulgaria and the Order of Civil Merit from King Ferdinand. He was an authority, recognized in England as well as in this country, upon all problems connected with the ever-perplexing Eastern question, and not only contributed to English and American periodicals, but was frequently consulted by officials high in both the English and the American Governments.

Under Dr. Washburn's administration Robert College was a Christian college in the same sense that Princeton, Yale, and Harvard are Christian colleges. It was neither organized nor conducted for the purpose of proselyting. Its Professor of Turkish Language and Literature at one time was a Turk, its Professor of Greek Language and Literature a member of the Greek Church. One of the most valued of the many valuable letters which Dr. Washburn received was from the head of that Church expressing appreciation of his work. "This enviable mission," said the Grand Vicar, "as is proved by facts, is the mission of making good men, not of corrupting consciences; to make good Christians, not perverts from the Church."

Since 1903 Dr. Washburn had been living in this country in comparative retirement, but keeping up his work for the College by his ministry to it here and contributing occasionally to periodical literature. The editors of The Outlook take this occasion to acknowledge their indebtedness to him for wise counsel frequently received by them at their request for their guidance in dealing with the Turkish problem. Not only Turkey, but no less the Balkan States, are indebted to him for the impulse which, under his guidance, Robert College has given to education in both communities.

THE MENACE TO AMATEUR SPORT

To an unprejudiced observer it would seem that by now the status of the "summer

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ball-player" in athletic circles should have been definitely settled in everybody's mind. Apparently there are some, however, who have failed to take into consideration anything more than the fact that there is nothing dishonorable in earning money by skill in athletics, and that many college students are in need of funds to secure means for their education. Mr. Caspar Whitney, in the "Saturday Evening Post," tells of replies which he has received to a question sent to a number of distinguished educators asking whether they did not think that the growing tendency to countenance boys' playing for money was a serious menace to the wholesomeness of college athletics. To this question all but three of the answers received, Mr. Whitney says, were emphatic statements of the belief that college baseball should at any price be kept free from the taint of professionalism brought in by "summer baseball." Of the three letters giving the opposite view-point the one from President Butler, of Columbia University, is perhaps typical. He writes:

I can see no possible objection to a student of Columbia University playing baseball for money during his vacation, if he wishes to do so, rather than to give private lessons or to serve as a waiter in a hotel. The question of his eligibility to participate thereafter in intercollegiate sport as a representative of Columbia is one to be settled on the basis of his academic standing and his performance as a student. If he is a bona-fide student in thoroughly good standing, why should he not be permitted to help pay his expenses in any honorable way that he may choose?

As Mr. Whitney points out, the fallacy in President Butler's view-point is very readily seen. It is not a dishonorable act to play baseball for money. It is not a dishonorable act to play baseball for sport. It is a dishonorable act to play baseball for money while pretending to be an amateur, or to pretend to be an amateur after having played baseball as a professional. Without such deception it is impossible for a college student to play both summer ball and to represent his university upon the baseball team. Why this is so Mr. Whitney very clearly shows:

The worth of the school or college boy to the hotel and resort baseball managers depends not merely on his playing skill, but on his amateur standing as well. If the boys were paid openly, they would not only be published as professionals, and so lose their right to represent their respective schools, but they would lose their standing even in summer baseball. To be known as baseball hirelings would destroy their peculiar value to the hotel. Their social prestige would be gone; their amateur *cachet* lost.

INDIA RUBBER MORALITY

Mr. Whitney also shows how this valuable amateur status is preserved to the satisfaction of the elastic conscience of summer ball-players:

In some instances the boys are enrolled at the summer hotel as "non-paying guests," where as "entertainers" they are given a taste of ease, very probably foreign to their normal life, and quite as likely demoralizing. When the boy is unusually desirable, either because of his expert baseball or on account of his social attractiveness, he receives, in addition to his board and lodging, a weekly wage that may be as low as ten dollars or as high as fifty. . . . To accomplish this payment in the coin of the realm and salve that elastic undergraduate virtue peculiar to the summer baseball and at the same time escape the deadly sin, unforgivable in summer baseball, of being found out, requires imagination—and an asbestos-lined conscience. The wage may not always be juggled through the more usual and accommodating expense item, for very often the boys are living in the vicinity and such excuse is impossible. In such cases the manager loses a five-dollar or other prescribed bill where the player is certain to find it; or after the game he makes one or another of a stock of kindergarten bets which the boy promptly wins. Some men laugh at such practices and think it rather smart in the boy thus to get round the amateur law. There are no doubt also men who would laugh at the cleverness of the lad who could forge a check and "get away with it."

If the summer ball-player should be granted, as President Butler contends, the special privilege of being both an amateur and a professional, why not extend this privilege to his brother athletes upon the track or the tennis court? If such extension is made, what becomes of the whole distinction between playing for money and playing for sport that helps to make the playing of games so vital a part in the moral training of youth? To abandon this position, the result of decades of effort by our schools and colleges, led by such men as Dean Briggs, of Harvard, and Professor Spaeth, of Princeton, would be a lamentable occurrence. It is hardly to be believed that a man of the standing of President Butler, of Columbia, could have considered this question from all sides when he recommended the

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admission of summer ball-players to full amateur standing. Such advice, nevertheless, coming from the President of a great university must have certain hurtful effect.

THE NEW SWISS PRESIDENT

Giuseppe—or, as we should say, Joseph—Motta is the new President of the Swiss Confederation. His inauguration is worth noting for three reasons. As his name indicates, he comes from the Canton of Ticino, comprising Italian-speaking Switzerland, and is the first Ticinese ever to reach the Presidency. He is also a Roman Catholic; and no Roman Catholic has before been President. Finally, he is the youngest man ever to hold that office.

The Swiss Executive is chosen in a singularly orderly manner, the Vice-President almost always becoming President. Both President and Vice-President are elected by the Federal Assembly for the term of one year, and are not re-eligible for the same offices until after another year has expired.

As with no other similar event, Signor Motta's accession marks the endeavor of the Swiss to realize their ideal of civilization; it consists of a fruitful racial collaboration on a purely democratic foundation. The day when Switzerland forgets this, said Dr. Motta in speaking recently to a correspondent of the London "Daily News," she will have lost her essential reason of being.

As to the present war, he continued, the Swiss Government's neutrality does not prevent individuals of the varied races which make up the Swiss Confederation from cherishing individual leanings towards one or the other of the combatants. "But when the Federal Council [the Cabinet] told the people they had to remember that they were Swiss before all, the public conscience awakened, and now events are examined, impartially and objectively, from a purely Swiss point of view."

The war is sadly interfering with Swiss trade. To meet the views of certain belligerents on the question of contraband, the Government provided that cereals and forage should be imported only by the State, and that these should not be exported. As to other commodities, President Motta says: "What we want to do is to live and work. It is essential for us to be able to import raw material and partly manufactured articles to keep our factories open and to give people employment, and to be able to export manufactured goods into the markets of the countries that surround us, holding the scales even."

The Outlook has just received a letter from a lady in Switzerland who says of her husband, an officer in the army: "He has been away since August 2, and I do not know when the heads of the army will let him come back." This gives point to Signor Motta's statement: "During the first five months of war we spent a hundred and ten million francs ($22,000,000) in mobilization for frontier defense, *and it is still going on.*"

BETTER NEWS FROM LABRADOR

Several weeks ago The Outlook reported the distress in Labrador caused by the severity of the season, the absence of the fish, and the closing of the European markets. In order to reduce expenses, Dr. Grenfell has closed all the hospitals, and is now operating in the houses of the people, as he did when his work began and before organization and friends had put proper facilities behind him. This is, of course, a matter of great regret; but Dr. Grenfell writes that they prefer to assume the inconvenience and even the loss involved in this curtailment of expenses rather than take a dollar from the sufferers in Belgium.

But it is a relief to know that some conditions have improved. An extraordinary school of fish has come in and has relieved the food famine which has hung over Labrador during the past few months. Labrador has suffered heavily from the effects of the war; and the closing of the hospitals is a noble contribution to the sufferers on the other side of the Atlantic. At the same time American supporters of this noble work will not fail to respond to an appeal extraordinary not only in character but in the manner in which it is presented.

THE BLACK POPE

Father Vladimir Ledochowsky, a Pole, has been elected General of the Society of Jesus, succeeding the late Father Francis Xavier Wernz, who died last August.

It is thus interesting to see that the headship of one of the most powerful organizations in the world has passed from the Latin race to the Teutonic and now to the Slav. Father Ledochowsky's election causes much comment, not only because of this racial

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factor, but also because of his personal ascendency.

Father Ledochowsky is a son of Count Anthony Ledochowsky, a Pole and a distinguished officer in the Austrian army, and is a nephew of the late powerful Cardinal Ledochowsky, Prefect of the Propaganda of the Holy See. As a boy the new head of the Jesuits was a page to the late Empress Elizabeth. He studied in Vienna, winning highest honors, and completed his course in Rome. He entered the novitiate of the Society of Jesus at an early age, was duly ordained priest, and became well known as a preacher and as a writer on sociology as well as theology. He finally became Provincial of his order for Poland.

The Generals of the Society of Jesus are elected for life by the General Congregation of the Order. The General of the Society is often called the Black Pope in recognition of the immense influence and power exercised by the head of the Jesuits, and in contrast to the Pope at Rome, who in his full canonicals is the White Pope.

CROWDING SHYLOCK OUT OF BUSINESS

Four and a half years ago, just after the organization of the Division of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation, its director, Arthur H. Ham, in an address before the Merchants" Association of New York, thus pictured a procession of victims of the loan sharks of the city on their way to the loan offices to make their payments: "Let us imagine a parade of sixteen abreast in close formation and reaching from Washington Arch to One Hundred and Thirtieth Street, a distance of six and a half miles. In the front ranks are 2,000 policemen; next come 2,500 firemen; then 2,000 other city employees, 500 letter-carriers, 75,000 clerks of railroads, insurance companies, and public service corporations; 75,000 employees from large mercantile houses; with school-teachers, professional and business men, and others numbering 50,000 more. If we will just imagine a parade of this size and character, we will get an idea of the extent of the loan shark evil in New York." At that time there were in the city 117 loan sharks, whose fraudulent representations in the newspaper they used chiefly as their advertising medium averaged more than three columns per day. The business they were doing amounted to $20,000,000 annually. Nor was this condition confined to New York. Mr. Ham estimated that in every city of the United States of more than 25,000 population, and containing to any appreciable extent citizens dependent on fixed salaries or wages, there were chattel mortgage and salary loan sharks in the proportion of one to every 5,000 inhabitants, and that one in every twenty voters was discounting two days' labor for the immediate price of one.

To-day, as the result of the Sage Foundation crusade, conducted by Mr. Ham against the sharks, the procession of victims making payments in New York would be unnoticeable in the crowd before a department store. There is not one loan shark advertising in any New York newspaper, and whatever business they are doing under cover is negligible. The last seven or eight of the gentry, the most tenacious of the lot, who had hitherto managed to evade the law by trick and device, have been put out of business within the last few months. Throughout the United States the campaign against the loan shark has been marked by an almost unbroken series of successes, particularly during the year just passed. All over the country, and particularly in New York, to a great extent at Mr. Ham's suggestion, large employers of labor, who previous to his propaganda would have discharged an employee known to have any transactions with a money-lender, have organized in their own establishments loan agencies for employees, or, better still, have allowed employees to form such agencies under their own supervision, all of which has had the effect of crowding the shark out of business.

REMEDIAL LOAN SOCIETIES

Another feature of Mr. Ham's crusade, with the same tendency, has been the formation of remedial loan societies, which lend to the small borrower at a reasonable rate of interest and charge only a fixed fee. Since the Sage Foundation took up the matter the number of these societies has increased from 14 to 39, involving 34 cities in 24 States, with one in Toronto, while six are at present being organized in five different States. The capital employed in these operations aggregates $13,500,000, and 750,000 loans, amounting to more than $25,000,000, are made annually. (Mr. Ham's reasons why these small loans cannot be

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made at a profit under two per cent a month were fully elucidated in The Outlook of August 2, 1913.) There are to-day, according to Mr. Ham, good small loans laws in New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Colorado, and Oregon; pretty good laws in Tennessee, Wisconsin, California, Maryland, Illinois, Minnesota, and Pennsylvania; while the situation has improved in Connecticut, Delaware, Virginia, Montana, Georgia, Ohio, Maine, and Florida. The District of Columbia has a good small loans law, except that the interest rate is confined to one per cent per month, which means continued activity on the part of the sharks. Michigan and Nebraska have passed small loans laws that the courts have decided to be unconstitutional, but which will doubtless be whipped into shape as soon as the Legislatures of those States meet. Efforts are to be made this winter to amend the laws also of California, Ohio, Illinois, and Maine; and new laws are under way in Alabama, Texas, Iowa, and Utah, while several other States are becoming interested in the anti-shark movement. The tendency of all new legislation in the direction of small loans laws is State supervision, and a legal rate of interest at two or three per cent per month. An event of interest and importance last year was the decision of the Supreme Court of Kansas, since followed by courts in other States, in awarding damages amounting to $6,000 to the victim of a loan shark to compensate him for the loss of his position and the annoyance and embarrassment caused by the shark's persecution in his efforts to extort his illegal profits. Another noteworthy case last year was that of a so-called insurance company in Ohio, which was indorsing notes for small borrowers and charging exorbitant prices for its services. To avoid prosecution this company canceled mortgages amounting to more than $100,000 it held against some 1,500 borrowers.

FOR THE SAILOR ASHORE

Those who go down to the sea in ships for their daily bread are finding the war a serious menace to livelihood. The port of New York is crowded with idle sailors from the closed ports abroad, mostly Germans and Austrians and Poles laid off from British vessels which formerly carried "mixed crews."

Down on the very tip of the toe of the island of Manhattan, on old South Street, where big sailing vessels used to poke their rakish prows up into Coenties Slip before the days of steam and gasoline, stands a tall Flemish warehouse building known all over the water-front as a refuge for hard-up sailormen. Its official name is the Seamen's Church Institute, founded seventy years ago; but this new building has been in use little more than a year. Many a homesick sailor fresh from a long voyage round the world will greet its comforts for the first time; but already the fame of its reading-rooms, its billiard-tables, its bank, post-office, and chapel, have spread from fo'castle to engine-room on ships of every flag. Clean beds at fifteen cents a night, twenty-five cents for a room to one's self, a place where new togs may be bought at cost, concerts and movies and shower-baths and pen and ink, with some one to write the letters if a man is handier with a windlass than with pen—all with no dues to pay, no strict rules to keep. So long as he is sober and decent the sailor may come and go as he pleases, and no questions are asked.

The Institute helps to bring the man and the job within signaling distance of each other. By an arrangement with the leading steamship companies in the city it maintains a shipping bureau free to all applicants. During the past year the bureau placed 3,380 men in positions aboard or ashore, which meant a serious reduction in ill-gotten gains to the crimps and shark boarding-house keepers who infest the unwary seaman's uncharted way.

To the sailor long ashore the quickest way to raise the price of a drink is to throw his bag or kit across the bar and ask the saloon-keeper to give him a couple of dollars on it. The dollars go quickly back into the bar-keeper's cash drawer, and the scanty store of worldly goods is never recovered. In a sailor's ordinary boarding-house there is little room or disposition to store possessions while the owner is abroad. One of the most popular features of the Seamen's Institute is a system for checking dunnage, and within a year nearly twenty thousand pieces have been thus cared for and saved to a man or his family. In fact, it is the sailorman's family who is an equal gainer by the Institute's activities. In 1914 $213,000 was deposited in the bank, of which over a third was sent back to the folks at home.

Chapel services are conducted daily in

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half a dozen languages, and the attendance goes to show that perhaps a seafaring man's love of a "chantey" springs from his fondness for hymns. English, German, Danish, Swedish, and Spanish services are crowded, although there is no compulsion felt by any to leave the billiard and reading rooms for an hour at church. There is a Bible in every bedroom, but in other respects the building suggests a clean and comfortable club, serving its thousand meals a day in its new restaurant, while its barber shop and soda fountain do a rushing business.

It needs close sailing to steer past the easy pitfalls of a great city for an incoming crew back from a long voyage's hardships, money in their pockets and idle days ahead; but the Institute's new launch, Sentinel, solves the problem by meeting incoming ships and carrying the men direct to its welcoming roof. Sailors who know the place need no persuasion to return, and the man who sees New York's harbor for the first time jumps at the chance to check his goods, deposit his money, bathe and shave and change before starting out to add another chapter to the varied yarns which make up the true sailorman's log of life.

AMERICA'S REPLY

When the public law of nations is broken by one nation, all nations are threatened. As a Nation, we Americans did not see that clearly when the war began; but we are beginning to see it now. Now that we are beginning to see it, our Government has spoken firmly, strongly, and effectively.

It was Germany's threat of sinking without warning merchantmen with their crews and passengers that finally aroused the American people. That threat was explicitly addressed to neutral countries as well as to Germany's enemies, and, so far as it meant danger to anybody, it meant danger not merely to the merchant ships of Great Britain and their American passengers, but also to the merchant ships of America. Of course, what Germany threatened was a plain breach of international law. More than that, it amounted to a repudiation of international moral obligation. By it Germany announced herself an Ishmaelite. By it she made known that on the high seas within an area that could be covered by her submarines Germany's hand was to be against every nation. This German decree was the natural outcome of the German policy in this war. Acting, as the German Chancellor has said, under pressure of necessity that knows no law, Germany has disregarded the rules of civilized warfare whenever she felt it was to her advantage to do so in her treatment of her adversaries. Now she finds that this course has led her straight to the disregard of the rights of countries with whom she has no quarrel and with whom she has maintained relations of amity. Germany's threat against American and other neutral ships indicates no new policy. It is the same policy that she has followed from the beginning, but carried to its logical conclusion. Because, however, it is no longer confined to her enemies, but is now extended to the detriment of the United States, the American people have discovered that it is without warrant.

In meeting this menace to America and Americans the State Department has acted in accordance with its best traditions. The American reply to the German decree is as impressive a document as has ever gone out from the United States. Both this reply and the note to England with reference to the use by British merchantmen of the American flag are outlined in "The Story of the War" on another page.

And emphasis is added to the impressiveness of the reply to Germany by the simultaneous note to Great Britain. Though incidentally the sending of this note to Great Britain at the same time as the note to Germany may have been designed to indicate that the American Government had no intention of departing from its strictly neutral position, it has served the far larger purpose of indicating by contrast the nature of our protest against Germany's threat. What we say to England is by way of friendly remonstrance at what seems to us a dangerous, even if technically a legitimate, practice. There is no doubt whatever that the use of a neutral flag by a belligerent war-vessel is sustained by precedent; and certainly, as an editorial writer in the New York "Evening Sun" has pointed out, if it is justifiable for a war-ship to do this, it is even more justifiable for a peaceful merchantman to do it; for what is right for the hunter is certainly right for the hunted. What we remonstrate with Great Britain for is making such occasional use of neutral flags into a regular practice. We had a right to

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remonstrate with Great Britain for this, even though the regular use of the American flag on British passenger vessels carrying great numbers of Americans might be of greater advantage than disadvantage to us ; and such remonstrance implies no reproof or complaint. We did have a cause of complaint against Great Britain when she planted mines in the North Sea, but we made no protest. On this question of the use of a neutral flag, however, we have no cause for grievance ; though we have every reason for making known to Great Britain what we think a due regard for our interests will induce her to do. This, however, is a very different thing from the sort of communication that we have directed to Germany. And the reason for the difference lies not in any attitude of friendliness to one country and unfriendliness to another, but in the fact that the nature of the act which has called forth the one note is fundamentally different from the nature of the act which called forth the other. In the case of Great Britain the act was one which seemed to us not lawless but unaccommodating and inconsiderate ; in the case of Germany the act complained of was lawless, not to say piratical. Moreover, the note to Great Britain is based on reports derived from Great Britain's enemies ; while the note to Germany is based on information supplied by Germany herself.. The American communication to Great Britain is therefore of service in making more emphatic by its very difference in tone and subject-matter America's solemn warning to Germany concerning the possible serious consequences of her proposed breach of international law and international morals.

If there was anything needed to make clearer than it now is the spirit of Germany which has led her to issue her war zone decree, with its threat against the lives of non-combatants and neutrals, it has been supplied by Germany herself in interrupting the communications of our Minister to Holland and Luxemburg. Both Holland and Luxemburg are neutral countries. While Holland has had the self-respect as well as the power to enforce the observance of her neutrality, Luxemburg, whether or not it had the self-respect, had not the power to do so. As a consequence Holland is free from German invaders, while Luxemburg, which made merely a pathetic protest against German occupation of her territory, is now under the domination of German soldiers. This fact, however, makes no difference in the status of our Minister to the two countries. There is warrant neither in international law nor in common sense for Germany to interrupt our communications with the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. It happens that whoever is sent to represent the United States at Holland is also designated to represent the United States at the Grand Duchy. At present our Minister to both these countries is Dr. Henry van Dyke. He has had, of course, occasion to send mail from Holland to Luxemburg. On its way the official mail of the American Legation was interrupted by German military authorities at the German city of Trèves, or, as it is known in German, Trier. It is reported that some of this mail was not only held up but actually returned to The Hague because it was sealed with the seal of the American Legation. This is a plain invasion of the diplomatic privileges of the American Minister ; and he did right to protest. Dr. van Dyke would not be the worthy representative of the United States that he is if he did not feel as he does feel, that the rights of the American Minister to Luxemburg must be observed as strictly and respected as completely as if Luxemburg were a great empire. Dr. van Dyke's conviction on this point, we are sure, is shared by Secretary Bryan and President Wilson. The American State Department, believing that the interruption of official mail between the American Legation at The Hague and at Luxemburg was unauthorized, requested the American Ambassador at Berlin to present the matter to the German Foreign Office, and to ask that instructions be issued to the proper authorities in order to insure hereafter prompt delivery of mail. The assumption that this act of disregard for the American Minister's rights was due to the ignorance of a local commander is one which our Government is bound, of course, to make. We hope that it will prove justified by the events. It is hardly conceivable that the German Government should have deliberately undertaken to flout the rights of an American diplomat with whom she has no official relations whatever. The incident, nevertheless, is quite as significant of Germany's spirit as the issuance of her war zone decree, though it has no such tragic possibilities. We are glad to say that our Government has been as prompt and as firm in dealing with this as with the other, and perhaps graver, matter.

These two events, both of them big with

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grave possibilities, are not the only ones that have occasioned charges of the violation of international law. Germany, for instance, accuses England of virtually turning her merchantmen into privateers by arming them and giving them instructions to ram and sink German submarines. That is a subject that at best is open to debate. We do not think that the right of merchant vessels to carry guns for their own protection, or to take measures to sink any vessel that commits piracy on the high seas, can properly be questioned. Germany also accuses England of violating international law by attempting to starve the German civil population. We do not believe that there is any ground for this accusation. It is true that England is using all her efforts to prevent foodstuffs from going into Germany; but those extreme efforts on England's part have been undertaken only since the German Government officially took over the foodstuffs now in the Empire. It is plain that any belligerent has the right to prevent, if possible, foodstuffs from going to the enemy's army; and England's action, in view of Germany's action, is defensible on that ground and cannot be condemned as an act against non-combatants. If now England establishes a close blockade, she is also well within her rights. Such a blockade the North established against the South in our own Civil War. On the other hand, what Germany has done and proposes to do in the sinking of merchantmen without warning and in endangering even neutral vessels within the war zone is patently and undeniably lawless. The only grounds on which such acts have even been attempted to be justified have been the grounds of retaliation. But retaliation has its limits, as we ourselves learned in our Civil War. There were threats then in the North to execute Southern prisoners in return for the abuses from which Northern prisoners suffered in Libby Prison; but good sense as well as honor and decency prevailed. And yet that was a war of life and death. Jefferson Davis, when a plan was laid before him to assassinate certain Northern leaders, said: "The laws of war and morality as well as Christian principles and sound policy forbid the use of such means of punishing even the atrocities of the enemy." James Ford Rhodes, the historian, says: "More than once each side was seemingly on the brink of retaliatory executions which would have been followed by stern reprisals. From such shedding of blood and its bitter memories we were spared by the caution and humanity of Abraham Lincoln, General Lee, and Jefferson Davis." It is because Germany has allowed herself to be governed by the spirit of reprisal that she has lost the sympathy of all neutral nations whose sympathy is worth having, and is now endangering even the continuance of their friendly relations.

If anything could make Germany's attitude more offensive, it is her proposal to the United States that if we want her to recede from her position we should do her work for her. She suggests that we should furnish our merchant ships with a naval convoy to protect them against German submarines, and that if we do not want our merchantmen to run in danger from her submarines we should induce England to raise her blockade of the German coast. In other words, Germany suggests that we, and not she, should prevent her submarines from sinking our boats, and that we, and not she, should make of no effect the superiority of the British navy. Great Britain might just as well ask that we should induce Germany to withdraw her armies from the western front and that we should send American soldiers over to prevent English soldiers from running amuck and killing indiscriminately any Americans who happen to be on Belgian soil. Germany must know that we cannot take her proposal seriously.

This whole situation, brought about by Germany's war zone decree, and made more serious by the Luxemburg mail episode and by Germany's own remedial proposals, ought to be a lesson to us and to all other nations concerning the sacredness of international law and the inevitable and terrible consequences of disregard for its violation.

It ought to be a lesson to Germany. She has said by the mouth of her Chancellor that necessity knows no law; that when a nation is fighting for its life it will not regard rules and precedents and international principles. She has believed and has acted on the belief that ultimately there is only one guide for a nation, and that is its own self-interest. Germany is now learning, let us hope, that even her own self-interest has failed to justify her disregard for the public law of nations. Belgium, Louvain, Rheims, Scarborough, Yarmouth, one after the other, have turned from her those who wished to be her friends; and now her war zone decree—not to mention the episode at Trèves—has made of

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every powerful neutral and of most other maritime neutrals possible enemies. The violation of the moral law, even though it be international moral law, invites punishment.

And this situation ought to be a lesson to us. Our failure to protest against the violation of the rules of civilized warfare has now been brought home to us. No man lives unto himself alone. No nation lives unto itself alone. To act as if the descent of a belligerent into savagery or piracy concerns only the offender's enemy is to invite general disaster. When Belgium was invaded in defiance not only of explicit pledges but of the very moral sense of civilization, when mines were sown in the North Sea in defiance not only of international conventions but of the common interest of humanity, the offense was directed not only and not even chiefly against an enemy, but against the civilized world. In our aloofness we may have imagined that it was no concern of ours. We have now seen that we were mistaken.

And we Americans—most of us—have been so aghast at war, so horrified at death and suffering, that we—at least some of the most idealistic of us—have been prone to put all acts of war into one category of condemnation. There is no one that can be so cruel as the sentimentalist can be, and it is the sentimentalist that has been inclined to say that war is so awful that it is idle to have rules of warfare; that if the nations of Europe are going to fight they might as well fight in any way they see fit; that war is so wicked that there can be no alleviation of it; that if Belgium is going to be invaded her women and children might as well be slain indiscriminately; that if naval battles are to be fought at sea the seas might as well be mined. Now we hope that even those who have been tempted to think in this way have begun to see what such thoughts lead to. International law after international law has been broken, and we have kept quiet. We have not been faithful to our duty as a civilized Power. Now we are beginning to feel the consequences of the disregard of international law. If some day in the future we ourselves are forced to become a belligerent, and an enemy, casting away all bonds of law, should begin to violate the rules of warfare, we should find the lesson driven home again. Our protest to the world would invite the reply: "When you were safe you kept silent; now that you are in danger your words mean nothing."

Fortunately, it is not too late; and fortunately at last our voice has been heard. In its reply to the German decree the Administration deserves, and will have, the support of the American people.

THE PERIL TO GOVERNMENT MERCHANTMEN

In an article upon another page Senator Lodge states his emphatic objections to the Ship Purchase Bill. As Senator Lodge points out, it is impossible to bring a detailed indictment against this measure, for, like the Old Man of the Sea in the grip of Hercules, the Shipping Bill, in its endeavor to escape from the clutch of the powerful Senate minority, undergoes almost an hourly change of form.

The difficulty of bringing in such an indictment grows when it is remembered that the country has not yet heard any authoritative and itemized statement as to what ships the Administration intends to buy, how these ships are to be used when bought, or what is to be their fate when the present emergency has passed into history. Surely these are questions to which the Nation has the right to an explicit answer.

Senator Lodge rightly places his chief emphasis upon the danger to the peace of our country that lies in the purchase of belligerently owned steamers and in the transfer of these vessels to the possession and control of our Government. This is indeed a peril upon which it would be difficult to put too great stress. It must not for an instant be forgotten, however, that this danger adheres to the whole project of launching a Government merchant marine at this time of turmoil. The purchase of interned or belligerently owned steamships entirely aside, a merchant fleet sailing under Government control, carrying cargoes to the warring nations, would be a sure invitation to foreign distrust and sooner or later would involve the menace of war.

At best the position of a neutral country at a time like this is difficult enough. The seizure of an American merchant vessel is a source of irritation, even though it is privately owned. The sinking of an American merchant vessel would, to put it mildly, be full of peril to our peace, even though the vessel were owned privately.

Can those who are backing this bill have

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considered fully the bitter feeling that would be aroused in this country should a vessel owned by our Government be halted and its cargo brought within the jurisdiction of a prize court? Do those who are backing this bill stand ready to answer for the consequences should such a vessel be sent to the bottom by mine or submarine?

IN LENT

THE OLD FIGHT

Society has become partially Christianized; there is now no authority on earth which can compel men to choose between loyalty to their faith and death; there are no longer pagan gods to whom Christians must offer sacrifices or go into the arena. There are martyrs in every country in the world, but martyrdom is no longer dramatized; the victim dies after long suffering hidden from the world.

There is no longer a place of torment luridly pictured and of a visible and haunting terror; and many people seem to think that there is no longer any hell, and that men can now live as they choose, with no thought of a broken law, a righteous judge, and an unescapable penalty impartially imposed and inevitably borne. And yet what men call hell, a place or state of remorse, of moral degeneration, of agony of mind and body, was never so obvious and tragic a reality as to-day. It is no longer necessary to open Dante's "Inferno" to find it; it is only necessary to unfold the morning newspaper. Its first page is crowded with reports of the misery which follows fast and sure on every violation of the laws of life. Disease and death wait, not as specters, but as the executioners of the laws of science on every offender; murder in every possible form is so familiar to the reporter that unless circumstances or persons are unusual it finds only a brief space; men fleeing from justice and women from disgrace are figures so familiar that they attract scanty attention; loss of integrity, betrayal of honor, blighting of home, loss of reputation and influence, are part of the history of the day.

And with whatever bravado men and women face these penalties, sooner or later, if one follows their careers, the inevitable tragedy is revealed. Unless and until there comes a place and an hour of repentance, these unhappy victims of passion, violators of honor, betrayers of their own souls, are in a hell of which Dante drew but a faint picture.

The man who was asked if he believed in hell, and answered that he was in it, brought out clearly a radical change of thought. The ignorant or literal-minded once thought of hell as a place of fiery torment prepared by an offended God for the future punishment of evil-doers; we know that it is an experience of suffering involved in the very structure of our natures, which begins here and now, and is an expression of divine love. The suffering of which men think when they think of hell is of to-day; it waits for no future, it begins now, and it will continue until the offender is purified.

The issue which every man must face is precisely what it was when Christ faced it in the wilderness: Shall a man save his soul? Words and symbols have changed, but the battle of life is as inevitable, as fateful, as desperate, as it was a thousand years ago.

THE PREACHING WANTED FOR TO-DAY

What do congregations want of their preachers to-day?

We do not think they want war sermons. The congregations are weary of conflicting reports from Petrograd of Russian victories, from Vienna of Austrian victories, from Berlin of German victories, from Paris of French victories; it is only unhappy Belgium which reports no victories. Weary of the perpetual discussions as to who is responsible for the war, who to blame for bringing it on, while still interested in new aspects of the war and discussions respecting them, they desire relief from them on Sabbath morning.

And yet they are in no mood to listen to discussions of abstract theology, of questions of the Trinity, vicarious atonement, the reconciliation of divine sovereignty and free will, and the like, in which congregations were interested a hundred years ago. The minister who meets the needs of his congregation must preach to the times, but must not take his text from the times.

It is easier to illustrate than to define the wants of the congregation of to-day. Let four illustrations serve instead of definition.

Jesus, in his last hours, said to his disciples, "My peace I give unto you: not as

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the world giveth, give I unto you." And then he went out into the darkness and the tempest: to be deserted by his disciples; to be arrested and brought before a fraudulent tribunal for a mock trial; to pass from condemnation by that court to another trial before a cowardly judge who believed him innocent but dared not acquit him; to hear the voices of the mob crying for his blood; to be scourged, spit upon, insulted; to be crowned with thorns and clothed with purple in derision of his loyalty; to see the sword piercing the heart of his own mother, and an unspeakable dread settling down upon the heart of his beloved disciple. And in it all he was the one serene, unperturbed spirit, facing calmly the taunts of his enemies and the torturing sorrows of his friends, speaking hope to the penitent brigand at his side, and comfort to the weeping mother at the foot of his cross.

This was his peace; this the peace which he gave to his disciples. Tell us, O preacher, how, in this hour when the very foundations of Christian faith are shaking, we can possess in our souls the serene, comfort-giving peace which characterized the last hours of Jesus of Nazareth. What was this peace of his? How can we possess it?

Paul wrote to his readers: "We glory in tribulations also; knowing that tribulation worketh patience; and patience, experience; and experience, hope: and hope maketh not ashamed."

Is this experience possible for us? If so, tell us, O preacher, how we can attain it.

The world is still divided into stoics and epicureans: stoics, who grit their teeth and courageously endure the trouble which they cannot escape; epicureans, who flee from it when flight is possible, or laugh it off by forced, if not mock, merriment.

But here is a prophet who tells us that trouble is real, is not to be fled from but welcomed, not to be stoically or even submissively endured but to be converted into a glory. And this prophet is the follower of One who came into the world that he might be crowned with the glory of tribulation, and who bade his disciples follow him, walking in the same path, inspired by the same spirit.

Tell us, O preacher, next Sunday how we can convert our sorrows into joys, our tribulations into glories. Impossible? No, you are wrong. It is not impossible. The book of Revelation was written in the darkest period in the history of the Christian Church; written in the time of Nero; written when Christians were thrown into the arena to be devoured by wild beasts or bound about with inflammable material soaked in oil and set on crucifixes, to be hideous torches; written when the Church of Christ would have seemed to a historian looking at it from without to be going to its death, as did its Master—a lingering, painful, but unescapable death. And yet this book of Revelation has more Hallelujah choruses in it than any other book in the Bible except the Hebrew Psalter.

Tell us, O preacher, how we can make the night of sorrow vocal with such songs of praise.

In the passage in which Paul declares that he glories in tribulation he also declares that the love of God is shed abroad in our hearts. How can we keep the love of God in our hearts when life seems all awry?

Those who have been looking outside of themselves for evidences of God's love are dazed when disaster comes upon them. If God be love, they say, how can he suffer the earthquake to swallow his children up? How can he suffer the tempest of rage and hate, crueler than the earthquake? But Paul finds the love of God shed abroad in his heart in the time of trouble. No adverse circumstance, be it what it may—neither death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor powers, nor things present, nor things to come, nor height, nor depth, nor any other creation—is able to separate him from God's love. So Browning says: "Thou, God, art love. I build my faith on that." Faith in the love of God is to him a foundation, not a superstructure; a premise, not a conclusion.

Tell us, O preacher, how we can find our way to this premise, how we can lay deep in our spirits this foundation, how we can have so shed abroad in our hearts the love of God that no untoward circumstance, material or spiritual, can destroy or darken it.

These are not easy problems to solve, not easy questions to answer, not easy sermons to preach. But he who out of his own experience can tell his fellow-men how they can keep the love of God in their hearts, how they can find a divine joy in earthly sorrow, how they can maintain a serene spirit in the midst of the tempest, will give to his congregation the message which congregations are eager to hear.

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THE STORY OF THE WAR

BY GREGORY MASON AND GEORGE KENNAN

I—A REVIEW OF THE WEEK

BY GREGORY MASON

THE week of February 10 to February 17 was a week of many words and few deeds, except in East Prussia, where the crumpling of the Russian advance by General von Hindenburg was the occasion for the declaration of another holiday in the German schools. On the sea and in the western war zone ashore it was as if the contending forces, like the nations supporting them, were too much engaged in speculating upon the probable results of the projected establishment of the German maritime war zone to give their whole attention to the matters immediately before them.

Hindenburg, however, was not to be diverted from his own plans. Thanks to his thorough knowledge of the whole terrain in East Prussia and Poland and to the splendid German railway system, he was able to balk the Russian attempt to catch him unawares in East Prussia, turning the tables on the invaders, from whom, it is reported, he took twenty-six thousand prisoners and quantities of supplies. The Russians were forced to fall back into their own territory, being swept cleanly from the vicinity of those Masurian Lakes which Hindenburg had predicted to his scoffing German colleagues before the war would some day be "of more value to Germany than a wall two hundred feet high."

The latest claims of the Germans as we go to press are that in their pursuit of the fleeing Muscovites they have captured the town of Plock, on the Vistula, about fifty miles northwest of Warsaw, and the town of Bielsk, some ninety-five miles northeast of the capital of Russian Poland and seventy miles from the border. As far as can be determined from the always rather unreliable despatches, the Russian front has been pretty well caved in between Plock and Bielsk north of Warsaw and north of the Bug River. Between these points the Russian lines seem to have dropped back distances varying from twenty to seventy miles.

NO "DECISIVE BATTLE" YET

From Bielsk up to a point on the border near Lyck the Russian line now bends sharply toward the enemy's territory, and between this point and the Niemen the still practically intact northern army of the Czar menaces Hindenburg's flank. Thus Hindenburg's triumph cannot be greeted as the long-awaited "decisive battle" of the eastern campaign, although it was certainly clean-cut, and as spectacular a feat as has been seen on land since the "old man of the Lakes" took Lodz in December.

The strategy of this grizzled hero was so beautifully simple as to delight even the lay observer. If I may be allowed a football analogy, he had vainly bucked the Russian center before Warsaw for weeks, with losses so frightful that even the Kaiser was beginning to grumble to his headstrong commander; so now he decided to try to skirt one of his opponents' ends. The East Prussian extremity seemed the one to attack, not only because there were better facilities for concentrating troops in that neighborhood than on the Carpathian flank, but because the Russians on the German left were seriously menacing several valuable towns in East Prussia. Making a strong diversion in the Carpathians with reinforcements despatched there, he gathered together some 200,000 men from the snow-banked trenches near Lodz, from the reserve armies in the Fatherland, and perhaps from the lines in France and Flanders, and by a sudden lunge from a well-masked position turned the Russian advance into a retreat—almost a rout.

HINDENBURG NOT A NAPOLEON

Although Hindenburg stands out head and shoulders above any other leader upon whom the spot-light of the war has yet fallen, and although he has earned the thanks of every German by his brilliant generalship in Poland and Prussia, these successes in the eastern arena are not attributable solely to one man's genius, as the victories of Napoleon were attributable to the genius of the Little Corporal alone. It is the German talent for organization and preparation which has permitted Hindenburg's strategic genius to have full play in these Polish and East Prussian maneuvers. These battles were half won before

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this war was declared by the wisdom of the German General Staff in perfecting the machinery which enables Germany to create armies overnight and get them to the right spot long before the armies of any other nation in Europe can get there.

The Russians are disposed to be philosophical about these defeats. They say that it is not miles but men that separate them from Berlin, and that the number of these men may best be reduced by sitting back in trenches and mowing down the Germans as they attack. In short, the Russians know that in a military chess game, where piece is swapped for piece, they must win. Therein is the consideration which makes calamity of such German successes as these about the Masurian Lakes. They only postpone the collapse which is almost inevitable if Russia continues willing to swap man for man.

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY AT ITS BEST

The simultaneous communication by our State Department of protests to Germany and Great Britain against the establishment of a maritime war zone dangerous to American shipping by German submarines, and the use of the American flag by British merchant vessels, is the most important development in "The Story of the War" this week, so far as America is concerned.

The note to Germany conveniently falls into four divisions. After recapitulating the German warning that, in view of the misuse of neutral flags alleged to have been ordered by the British Government, it may not always be possible for the Germans to exempt neutral vessels within the war zone from attacks intended to strike enemy ships, the American note, in the first place, points out to Germany that any such molestation of neutral vessels would be flatly contrary to international law, which grants the right of visit and search on the high seas for the specific purpose of enabling a belligerent vessel to determine the nationality of ambiguous craft.

In the second place, our Department of State takes occasion to "remind the Imperial German Government very respectfully that the Government of the United States is open to none of the criticisms for unneutral action to which the German Government believes the governments of certain other neutral nations have laid themselves open, . . . and that it, therefore, regards itself as free in the present instance to take with a clear conscience and upon accepted principles the position indicated in this note."

The third consideration handled is the backbone of the entire communication. If by the act of the commander of any German war-vessel an American ship or the lives of American citizens should be lost on the high seas, the United States "would be constrained to hold the Imperial Government of Germany to a strict accountability for such acts of their naval authorities, and to take any steps it might be necessary to take to safeguard American lives and property, and to secure to American citizens the full enjoyment of their acknowledged rights on the high seas." An admonition from one friendly nation to another could hardly be firmer than this.

In conclusion, the American Government, "with the greatest respect, . . . expresses the confident hope and expectation that the Imperial Government can, and will, give assurance that American citizens and their vessels will not be molested by the naval forces of Germany otherwise than by visit and search, though their vessels may be traversing the sea area delimited in the proclamation of the German Admiralty."

In the note to the British Government the State Department, "assuming that the reports are true" of the use and intended use of the American flag by British merchantmen, reserves "for future consideration the legality and propriety of the deceptive use of the flag of a neutral Power in any case for the purpose of avoiding capture."

The Department, however, sees a distinction between the occasional use of a neutral flag for such a purpose and "an explicit sanction by a belligerent government for its merchant ships generally to fly the flag of a neutral Power within certain portions of the high seas, which are presumed to be frequented with hostile war-ships." In this regard it is said that "the United States would view with anxious solicitude any general use of the flag of the United States by British vessels traversing those waters."

Therefore, in conclusion, the American Government "trusts that his Majesty's Government will do all in their power to restrain vessels of British nationality in the deceptive use of the United States flag in the sea area defined by the German declaration, since such practice would greatly endanger the vessels of a friendly Power navigating those waters, and would even seem to impose upon the Government of Great Britain a measure

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of responsibility for the loss of American lives and vessels in case of an attack by a German naval force."

These notes are courteous, dignified, restrained, and to the point. Their language and tone is almost identical, the only difference being such as is inevitable from the fact that the note to Germany treats of a matter of more seriousness than the subject handled in the protest to England. These notes constitute the most aggressive piece of diplomatic correspondence that has emanated from Washington since President Cleveland's Venezuelan message.

INDICATIONS OF A BITTER STRUGGLE

That the end of the war is to come only by the wearing down of the belligerents is indicated more and more every day. One such indication was the tone of the speech of Rt. Hon. David Lloyd George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in the British House of Commons the other day. Estimating that during the present calendar year the aggregate war expenses of the Allies will be about $10,000,000,000, he said:

"We could pay for our huge expenditure on the war for five years, allowing a substantial sum for depreciation out of the proceeds of our investments abroad. France could carry on the war for two or three years at least out of the proceeds of her investments abroad, and both countries would still have something to spare to advance to their allies." There was no hint of a speedy termination of the war in the words of this astute statesman.

THE FATE OF LODZ

To go back to the eastern war arena for a moment, the claim of Petrograd that the Germans have evacuated Lodz, which they have held since December 6, is unconfirmed as this is written. It is certain, however, that they have withdrawn from many of their strong positions about Lodz and Lowicz in order to strengthen themselves in East Prussia and the Carpathians. The loss of Lodz would be but a slight blow, anyway, since it has been found impossible to take Warsaw by frontal attacks with Lodz as a base.

In the Carpathians the week seems to have gone against the Czar, as it has gone against him at the other tip of his far-flung line. The Russians, it is true, in the important Dukla Pass and along the upper reaches of the San River, in Galicia, have stood as firm as the hills about them, but east of this point, particularly in Bukowina, they have fallen back everywhere along a front of nearly one hundred miles, by Petrograd's admission. An Austrian army, leavened by some Bavarians, and no doubt German-controlled, has begun the execution of a large-scale turning movement against the Russians about Czernowitz, the capital of the province, which threatens the Slavs as the Allies' turning movement threatened General von Kluck on the Marne in September. The Teutons have crossed the Sereth River about Czernowitz to cut off the retreat of the Slavs from that stronghold, which is still being strongly defended. The recapture of Czernowitz would be an event of great psychological importance, as it would be calculated to put new loyalty into the wavering Bukowinians.

ALBANIA VS. SERVIA

The Albanian leader who took a force of fellow-countrymen into Servia merely "walked right in, turned around, and walked right out again," according to a humorous correspondent interpreting the official statement to that effect from Nish. The Servian border defenders fell back until reinforced, it is said, and then fell upon the Albanians with slaughterous results. Apparently this abortive attempt was incited by Mohammedans preaching the Holy War.

AIR-SHIPS AND SUBMARINES

If the British reports of their large-scale aeroplane raid on German naval and military bases on the Belgian coast are to be believed, the value of the aeroplane as an instrument of destruction has at last been amply demonstrated. The British aver that their aircraft damaged the railway stations at Ostend and Blankenberghe as well as several small naval vessels at Zeebrugge. It is well to take these claims with a grain of salt, however.

An American citizen, Alfred Edwards by name, who arrived at the port of New York recently, gave a vivid account of the merciless efficiency of the German submarine. Edwards was an oiler on the British freight steamer Icaria, which was torpedoed fifteen miles off Havre on January 31. According to Edwards, as the submarine came toward the steamer with her metal back swashing in the green seas the freighter's captain ran up the British ensign. The intrepid U 21, for she it was, gave no hail or signal, but immediately torpedoed the larger vessel twice. The

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Icaria's crew took to their boats and were picked up by French destroyers. According to the newspapers, Edwards expressed his opinion that if the Icaria's captain had run up the Stars and Stripes instead of the Union Jack, his vessel would not now be resting on the bed of the English Channel.

New York City, February 17, 1915.

II—WAR RELIEF WORK IN RUSSIA

BY GEORGE KENNAN

FIRST ARTICLE

NEVER, perhaps, in the world's history has a nation been called upon to bear a heavier burden of relief work than that which the Russians have had to carry during the last six months. They have been waging war on three frontiers; they have put into the field four or five million men; and they have been compelled not only to take care of five hundred thousand prisoners and five or six hundred thousand wounded, but to succor immense hordes of destitute fugitives, and to aid in one way or another two or three million families left without adequate support when their breadwinners were called to the colors. In bearing this burden and doing this work th Russians have shown a capacity for self-sacrifice and a spirit of patriotic devotion which have seldom been equaled and never, perhaps, surpassed.

It is too soon, as yet, to give anything like a full or accurate account of Russian endeavors and achievements in this field; but even from the fragmentary data now available it may be possible to sketch the relief work of the nation in outline, and to describe briefly some of its methods and results.

The most important, and at the same time the most difficult, problem set before the Russian people by the war was the transportation and care of the wounded. They came back from the Caucasus in tens of thousands, and from Prussia, Poland, and Austria in hundreds of thousands; and to provide them all with food, fresh clothing, hospital accommodations, and surgical care was a colossal task. A large part of this work—particularly at first—was done by the Red Cross, which in the early part of the war was the only organized body, outside of the army, which had been trained and equipped for such service. In the first four months of the war it spent nearly fifteen million rubles,[1] and established at or near the front 70 base hospitals, 64 stationary lazarets, 40 movable lazarets, and 22 field hospitals, with an aggregate capacity of 50,000 beds. It also put into the field six automobile divisions, a sanitary division, an epidemic division, a disinfecting division, and two sanitary trains; and established back of the fighting lines 78 bandaging and feeding stations, every one of which was capable of giving food and first aid to 2,000 men a day. Its total working force numbered more than 18,000 persons, and included 696 surgeons, 8,000 stretcher-bearers and sanitarians, and more than 10,000 nurses.[1]

But the care of the wounded was not left to the Red Cross alone, great though its means and facilities were. The whole Empire mobilized its helpful forces, and thousands of governmental and social organizations co-operated in the work of relief. The city councils of more than one hundred cities and towns formed a great municipal union, and established two hundred and thirty hospitals or lazarets in Petrograd alone. The *zemstvos* (provincial and district assemblies) also formed a great union, and not only established hundreds of hospitals in different parts of the country, but raised and spent immense sums of money in caring for soldiers' families, establishing labor bureaus, succoring destitute refugees, providing asylums for soldiers' orphans, and doing many other kinds of relief work.

The railway men of the Empire combined, under the Ministry of Ways and Communications, and, after raising 850,000 rubles as a first subscription, pledged themselves to give 270,000 rubles a month from their wages during the whole period of the war. With this money the Ministry equipped eleven sanitary trains, each capable of transporting four hundred wounded men, and organized seventy-seven lazarets with an aggregate capacity of 4,300 beds. It also established

[1] The Russian ruble is equivalent to about fifty cents in American coin.—G. K.

[1] Statement of the Grand Duchess Ksenia Alexandrovna, Petrograd "Reitch," November 22, 1914.

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more than a hundred feeding and relief stations along the routes by which the wounded were brought back from the front.

Most of the other Ministries, with the aid of their employees, organized hospitals or lazarets, in Petrograd or at the front, and the Ministry of Justice (in combination with the Supreme Court) was authorized to increase its relief fund by issuing and selling to the public postal stamps of distinctive design for letters, newspapers, and packages.

The Polytechnic Institute of Petrograd established a war hospital of one thousand beds, and the Imperial Geographical Society created another in its own building. The Free Economic Society opened two hospitals in Petrograd and one in the Caucasus, and established a number of feeding and relief stations for destitute refugees driven out of Turkish Armenia by the Turks and the Kurds. Hospitals or lazarets with a capacity of from three hundred to one thousand beds were also created by the Franco-Russian Bank, by the higher schools of Petrograd, and by the colleges for women ("Bestuzhevski Higher Courses") in Petrograd, Moscow, and Odessa.

Even in the cities where there was no established organization to take the lead, or where the existing facilities for relief work were inadequate, citizens formed committees and organized hospitals, with very little money or with none at all. In Kiev, for example, a committee of women raised a few thousand rubles; secured the use of a large empty four-story building; cleaned and disinfected it themselves with the aid of peasant women and the older scholars from the public schools; collected cots, beds, and bedding from patriotic dealers or private families; and established a hospital large enough to accommodate 3,500 wounded men. All this was done by the co-operative work of the people, upon the initiative of a few women, and with only a few thousand rubles in actual cash.

In Ekaterinoslav the citizens got together and formed what was known as the "Count Keller Committee" [1] for social relief in general and the care of the wounded in particular. Great interest was taken by the common people in the work of this Committee, and large sums of money were raised for it by means of concerts, lotteries, and amateur theatricals in the peasant villages. In many of the large Russian settlements there is a good deal of musical and histrionic talent, and in order to raise money for relief work the peasant choirs and troupes went to the nearest cities, where, under the management of the Committee, they gave public concerts and plays. On the 14th of last November the Count Keller Committee had one hundred and seven local branches, and was maintaining more than fifty lazarets as well as giving aid to a large number of soldiers' families throughout the province.

Hundreds of peasant villages offered to establish and support lazarets of from five to ten beds each, but the impossibility of finding medical attendants for them and the great practical difficulties involved in the transportation and distribution of wounded men in small lots forced the Government to decline these propositions. Then the peasants asked to have "lightly wounded" soldiers sent to their houses, and promised to feed them and take care of them until they should recover. Eighty-eight peasant families, for example, in the canton of Nechaief, province of Riazan, offered to take one hundred and fifty lightly wounded soldiers, to be cared for as long as necessary in their village homes; and scores of similar applications came from as many different cantons in half a dozen different provinces.[1]

It is a noteworthy fact that, with all their own burdens to bear, the Russians did not neglect the suffering people and the destitute refugees in Belgium, Servia, Poland, and the Caucasus. Even the peasant communes remembered the Belgians; and for the relief of the Servians, the Poles, and the Armenian refugees in the Caucasus committees were formed and collections of food and clothing were made in most of the larger cities and towns. The Servian Relief Committee in Petrograd was organized by the Grand Duchess Helen, and received not only generous gifts of money, clothing, and food from private individuals, but a contribution of fifty thousand rubles from the Petrograd City Council. Large sums of money and quantities of food and clothing were sent also to Poland and the Caucasus by relief committees in Petrograd and Moscow.

[1] Named in honor of Count Keller, who was Governor at Ekaterinoslav in the last decade of the last century, and who was afterward killed in the battle of Mo-tien-ling in Manchuria. He was not only honored by his countrymen at home, but was highly esteemed by his enemies the Japanese. There was sincere mourning, I remember, in Tokyo when the news of his death was received there. —G. K.

[1] Article by A. Borisof in the "Russkiya Zapiski," Petrograd, December, 1914.

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The attitude of the Government toward popular measures of relief has generally been tolerant, if not sympathetic. After the revolutionary outbreak of 1905–6 it manifested strong disapproval of civic unions and combinations for social betterment, and repeatedly forbade the *zemstvos* to unite or to hold conventions for the attainment of objects in which they were conjointly interested. In the stress of war, however, it was compelled to change its attitude toward such combinations, simply for the reason that, acting alone, it could not meet the demands for assistance and relief that were made upon it. It distrusted popular unions, assemblies, and conventions as much as ever; but it was forced to sanction them because the bureaucracy was neither strong enough nor wise enough to deal successfully with the multifarious problems that a state of war presented. The Czar therefore authorized the Union of Zemstvos and the Union of Cities, and accepted their co-operation in the great work of war relief. In minor matters, however, the bureaucracy showed as much hostility to the spirit of democracy as ever.

In the late fall of 1914, for example, the *zemstvo* of Kaluga decided to issue an appeal to the inhabitants of that district, asking them to contribute seed for the lands of needy soldiers who had been called to the colors, and whose families had been left with insufficient means. It drew up for publication and distribution a circular letter in which it addressed the people as "citizens." Under the censorship rules, this letter required the approval of the provincial Governor; and, when it was presented to him for sanction, he replied in writing as follows:

"I have no objection to the proposed appeal, provided you make in it the following alterations: 1. Instead of 'citizen farmers' you must say 'brother farmers.' 2. For 'all of us, citizens' you must substitute 'all of us, Russian people.' In place of 'our hearts are no harder than the hearts of citizens in other Russian villages' you must print 'our hearts are no harder than the hearts of farmers in other Russian villages.'"

The Kaluga *zemstvo* was so irritated by the Governor's letter that it decided to appeal to the Governing Senate (the Russian Supreme Court) in order to get a judicial determination of the question whether or not the use of the word "citizen" is illegal.

The action of the Kaluga Governor may be regarded, of course, as an isolated case of bureaucratic stupidity and tyranny; but the number of such stupid tyrants in the ranks of the Russian bureaucracy is not small, and they are neither restrained nor admonished by the Central Government. The latter may regard them as overzealous, but it evidently thinks that they are showing the right disposition when they oppose the insubordinate self-assertion of "citizens."

Another curious and noteworthy illustration of the prevailing bureaucratic tendency is to be found in the case of the Free Economic Society and its hospital libraries.

Readers of Russian newspapers in the later months of the war must have noticed in many of them pathetic appeals of this kind:

"Ivan Nikolaievitch Morozof, a soldier from Rostof on the Don, is recovering from his wounds in the hospital of the Zemstvo Union at No. —— —— Street. He is very lonesome. Won't somebody from his native town or his native province come in and talk to him?"

In order to relieve the loneliness of such men and ameliorate the tedium of their convalescence the Free Economic Society of Petrograd, one of the great liberal organizations of the Empire, has undertaken to supply the war hospitals and lazerets with reading matter. In the fall months of 1914 the Society sent out eight hundred and three hospital libraries, which comprised in the aggregate more than 500,000 volumes.

A few of the books contained in these libraries were written from the liberal point of view, but none of them had been officially condemned or prohibited. The governors, however, in some of the provinces immediately took alarm and issued circular letters to *zemstvos*, town councils, relief committees, and hospitals, forbidding the use of these libraries, on the alleged ground that the books therein contained were "pernicious in tendency." Governor Muratof, of Kursk, denounced the Free Economic Society, and declared that many of the books that it had sent to war hospitals were not only "demoralizing" and "corrupting," but were "quite as injurious to soldiers as pornographic literature would be to young girls." As examples of such books he specified:

"Griff's Almanac" for 1903.

"Labor Unions in the Principal Countries of the World."

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"Thoughts of Wise Men," by Count Leo Tolstoy.

"The Story of a Peasant" ("Histoire d'un Homme du Peuple"), by Erckmann-Chatrian.

"The Government and People of Switzerland," by T. Bogdanovitch.

"Organizations of West European Laborers," by L. Kuprianova.

In no circumstances, Governor Muratof said, could these books be allowed to go into the hands of wounded soldiers in the hospitals of the Kursk Province. He thought best, therefore, to exclude the libraries of the Free Economic Society altogether, because he could never feel sure that, among a lot of harmless books, there might not be pernicious literature of this kind.

The example of Governor Muratof has already been followed by the governors of Yaroslav and Kherson, and for the libraries of the Economic Society there have been substituted small collections of approved books furnished by the Russian Red Cross, a "politically trustworthy" organization.

In the province of Chernigof the *zemstvo* undertook to provide the hospitals with maps and war literature, and to organize courses of lectures on the war for the benefit of wounded soldiers. The Governor, however, interfered at once with a prohibition. These men had fought in the war, but after their return from the front it was not safe, he thought, to let them know anything more about it than they could glean from the arid pages of the "Army Messenger," an official publication.

The efforts of the Government to keep "pernicious" literature from the soldiers may be more or less effective in Russia, but they will be of no avail in Germany. In that country there have been printed in the Russian language scores, if not hundreds, of books, pamphlets, and brochures which, on account of their "pernicious" character, the Russian censors would not allow to be published at home, and the hundreds of thousands of Russian prisoners whom the Germans now hold can there obtain them and read them without fear. Fifty thousand Russian prisoners became enlightened in this way in Japan, and if the present war should continue another year ten times that number may get a Socialistic and revolutionary education in Germany. The fact that two-thirds of them are illiterate makes no difference. One educated soldier can read aloud to fifty who are not educated, and in the prison camps they will all have plenty of time for reading and discussion.

With the attitude of the Russian people toward the army and the sacrifices that the peasants have made for the soldiers at the front I shall deal in another article.

THE SHIPPING BILL AND MARCH FOURTH[1]

BY HENRY CABOT LODGE

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM MASSACHUSETTS

IT is not an easy matter to argue about the Shipping Bill—a bill that is still, as I write, being constructed somewhere between the White House and the Senators in charge of it. We do not know what the bill is to be, with so many changes suggested and to be made, thus changing its entire character from day to day. And at the time of writing there are signs that the bill will not pass by March 4. Although it is not possible to forecast how many additional changes will be made to the original bill or what other important amendments may again be made, the Nation is now convinced that the opposition to the bill is not due to politics, but to the prevailing conviction in the Senate—openly or secretly espoused—that the bill is dangerous to the interests of the United States. These dangers will increase in number as the days go on and the technicalities of maritime warfare and diplomacy become more numerous. The bill commits the Government of the United States to Government ownership in a direction never before attempted, except on a perfectly insignificant scale, by any nation, and never by any great maritime nation. It is an advance in the direction of Socialism, as I look at it, which alone would merit a thor-

[1] See editorial in this issue on the "Peril to Government Merchantmen."

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ough debate in the Senate. It opens up the whole question—one of the greatest questions with which this country has had to deal for many years—of the best method of reviving the American merchant marine in the foreign trade. It also involves international questions of the gravest character and fraught with most serious possibilities.

The double danger lies in proposing that the Government of the United States should enter upon the business of owning and operating ships, and should undertake that new task in the midst of a world-wide war.

The Senate, as well as the people throughout the country, are confronted in all directions by a total lack of necessary information, *which should properly be furnished by those who are urging the passage of this measure.* The President has contented himself in speaking of it with a few simple generalities, which are of no use in the discussion, and with the assertion of his own personal determination to have the bill pass, which is a governing factor in the whole business but which is not a satisfactory argument. Secretary McAdoo, who competes with the President in zeal for the bill, has uttered more words in regard to it, but has said comparatively little. In his testimony before the House Committee, however, he gave the Committee to understand that the ships which the Government intended to buy are the German ships now laid in American ports because they are unwilling to go to sea through fear of capture by the opponents of Germany. When this matter was first brought forward, it was generally understood, both here and in Europe, that the Government's intention was to secure this legislation in order to buy the German ships. This purpose was never denied by any one in authority, and the Governments of France, Russia, and England protested against it, although Great Britain made her protest with certain modifications. We know what the belligerents think; we know what their prize courts will decide. It is all set forth in their directions to their own courts and in the Declaration of London; and we know how they feel. They cannot make a protest until the overt act has been committed; but warnings have not been lacking. They were made last summer, and they have been given since. Warnings or statements of how they feel have been presented, formally or informally, to our State Department.

Let us consider the Dacia. I know that Great Britain has taken a position against the Dacia being allowed to sail. To-day the Dacia is on her way to Rotterdam. England holds that it is not at all a question of whether the sale of the Dacia is a bona-fide sale for commercial purposes. She was an imprisoned ship. By taking our flag she may escape from the danger of capture under which she now rests; and that, to the extent to which it goes, is a change in the balance of conditions created by the war, and on those sound grounds England would not recognize it.

Russia and France have made a formal protest, going much further, adhering to the old doctrine of France, Russia, and Germany that after the outbreak of hostilities the transfer of a belligerent flag to a neutral cannot be recognized. Those protests are here in the State Department. This means that if those ships go out of our ports after the Government has bought them, flying the American flag, France and England and Russia will decline to recognize that they are American ships, but will regard them as German ships, good prize, liable to be captured, or to be sunk if they resist.

To show that this matter of the transfer of the ships from a belligerent to a neutral flag has already engaged the thoughts of this Administration, I desire to call attention to the decision of our War Risk Bureau in regard to the Dacia, which has sailed with the approval of the State Department in order to make a test case. It seems to me a rather dangerous business to make test cases of this character in time of war. I need not point out that the situation is admittedly serious internationally. And I wish to remark that as late as January 13 last our War Risk Bureau declined to insure the Dacia, but a fortnight later the same Bureau issued a policy insuring the cotton cargo at four per cent, but declined to insure the vessel itself. Naturally, the War Risk Bureau was willing to insure the cotton because the British Government formally announced, through the Washington Embassy, that they would pay for the cotton themselves. But the vessel was not insured because England declared that, "if the Dacia should be captured, the British Government would find themselves obliged to bring the ship—apart from the cargo—before the prize court. The British Government have found it impossible to agree that the transfer, in the circumstances in which it has been effected, is valid in

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accordance with the accepted principles of international law."

But if it is not the intention of the Administration to buy German ships, this can be easily demonstrated by placing in the bill the amendment, already voted down in the Committee, to debar the Government from buying the ships of any belligerent or of the citizens or subjects of any belligerent. Voting down this amendment is an admission that the purchase of the German ships is the intention of the Administration. Yet that amendment embodied my very strong conviction that the Government should under no circumstances buy the ships of any belligerent. I am just as much opposed to buying English or French or Russian or Austrian ships as I am to the Government purchase of German ships. The only difference is that the Administration is apparently intending to buy the German ships and no others, and Congress should have the wisdom to prohibit the purchase of any belligerent-owned ships.

It is idle to say that we could not buy ships elsewhere. Among the neutrals are maritime nations possessing many steamships, some of which we could buy. There are many vessels belonging to the American-South American trade which are unable to secure full cargoes owing to financial conditions in South America. Owners of these vessels would be glad to sell. And from these sources we could obtain just the type of vessels we need—large, modern freighters—whereas with few exceptions the German ships are wholly unsuited to our present purposes.

The only argument I have heard for the purchase of the German ships is that they are ready to our hand and that, as an emergency exists, we must buy ships of which we can take immediate possession. This is merely a pretext. The emergency may have existed last summer for a short period, but it does not exist now.

No doubt the rates are high. That is because war exists and insurance rates and freight rates correspond to the risks; but high rates do not constitute an emergency. The number of ships which the Government could purchase from any source could take but a trifling part of our freight, and the favored few who could get their freight on the Government ships would no doubt have their risks paid for them by the United States; but this would be of no advantage to the great mass of our shippers and exporters. The emergency argument, therefore, wholly fails as a reason for buying the German ships.

Buying the German ships would be, on the other hand, an unneutral act, and very readily might be construed as a hostile act and an actual breach of neutrality. The German ships are in port through fear of seizure by hostile cruisers if they emerge from their present place of safety. The removal of these ships from trade means of course a great loss to the owners and to Germany. Not only are the owners and Germany, which subsidizes the lines to which they belong, losing a large amount of money by their being laid up at neutral ports, but they are at a heavy daily expense in caring for them and in mitigating, as far as possible, the inevitable deterioration which idle ships incur. Therefore to buy these ships and relieve their owners from these expenses and to hand over to them thirty or forty millions of dollars belonging to the people of the United States would be a great and direct assistance to one of the belligerents in the war now raging.

I need not say that we are in friendly relations with Germany and wish to remain so, as with all the other fighting nations. But if we buy French or Russian or English ships and transfer them to our flag, can we imagine that Germany will accept our act? Germany feels that she is fighting for her life, and, however willing she may be to make sacrifices and to hold our friendship and good will, we may be sure that she will not sacrifice her own safety in the slightest degree in order to do it. That is the attitude of Germany on one side just the same as that of the opposed Powers on the other, and here we are proposing to buy—and to buy on the spur of the moment—ships owned by a belligerent (I care not what belligerent), and going much further than the mere question of contraband, making ready to put them into a trade where the seas are strewn not only with mines, but with international complications of the most dangerous character.

Yet, despite all this, we are apparently not to be permitted to put a simple clause into the bill which will at once guard us against any such dangers or misunderstandings. Why not? I have thus far found no answer to this question, nor have I heard any reason given why we should enter upon Government ownership by purchasing a large number of unsuitable ships from a belligerent, with all

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the difficulties and real dangers which such a step implies.

But supposing the purchase, however, to be made, the transfer of these ships to our flag would follow. Then the question at once arises as to whether the belligerents opposed to Germany would recognize that transfer; and I emphasize the fact that France and Russia have always held consistently to the doctrine that the transfer of the flag from a belligerent to a neutral, after hostilities had begun, was not to be recognized; and England, it would seem from recent information, makes it abundantly clear that her objection to the transfer would lie if the ships were put into the European trade. If the ships were purchased, the unneutral act committed, and the ships transferred to our flag, they would then go to sea as Government-owned ships, and, in the view of Germany's opponents, would still be German ships, would be regarded as good prize and liable to be captured or sunk because they were still German ships. I need not, I am sure, enlarge upon further or reiterate the danger which such a situation would present to the peace and welfare of the United States.

It would not help our export trade, and would bring us within measurable distance of war, not with England alone, but with France, Russia, and Japan.

CLAUSEWITZ AND THIS WAR

BY ARTHUR BULLARD

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK IN EUROPE

This article, written by Mr. Bullard during his recent voyage to Europe, is the first of a group of articles in which our former "War Correspondent at Home" will give his impressions of war conditions abroad and of what is likely to follow the close of the war.—THE EDITORS.

EVERY one who has made any study of military matters has at least heard of the writings of Karl von Clausewitz. But his collected works run into ten volumes, and I had lacked the courage to tackle them; but at sea there is nothing to do but read.

I have seldom enjoyed so pleasant a surprise. Few writers have succeeded in expressing in more direct and simple language the prime reality of their generation as adequately as did Clausewitz. War was the business of his day. He was born in 1780. At the age of twelve he entered the Prussian army as *Fahnenjunker*, and served through the Rhine campaigns of 1793–4. At twenty-six he was aide-de-camp to Prince August of Prussia, and was present at Jena. In the wholesale surrender which followed he was captured and sent to France. In 1807 he was back in service on the staff of Scharnhorst, and was active in the reorganization of the Prussian army—the first experiment in universal conscription. In 1812 he entered the Russian army as a staff officer and saw the Moscow campaign. The next year he was back in Prussia and served on Blücher's staff at Lützen and Bautzen. In the winter of 1813 he was chief of staff on the lower Elbe and defeated Davoust at Goerde. In the final campaign of 1815 he commanded the Prussian left wing at Ligny and the rearguard at Wavre. After the peace he served in a dozen military posts. He was at one time chief of staff to Field Marshal Gneisenau, and at another Director of the Military School at Berlin. He died of cholera in 1831.

The world in which he lived was at war—and it was this world he wrote about. His great work—"On War"—is not only an authoritative exposition of a technical subject, it is also a wonderful mirror of his times. Although so much more voluminous, his writings bear a spiritual kinship to Machiavelli's "Prince." Machiavelli has lived in literature, not because he wrote an able textbook on the art of ruling, but because his manual gave such a fascinating picture of the Italy in which he lived. The dominant reality of his day was the intriguing of princelings—to be a prince, by fair means or

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foul, was the great ambition. But the glory of the times of Clausewitz was the successful general. His writings are glowing *tableaus* of the Napoleonic epoch.

The war of which Clausewitz writes from such intimate knowledge was fundamentally different from any that had gone before. It was, as the Germans describe this present conflict, *Volkerkrieg*—a war of peoples. The lawyer Danton, in Paris, had helped to revolutionize the theory of war as well as French politics.

All through the eighteenth century fighting had been carried on by small armies of mercenaries. A diplomat who knew that his king could afford to hire ten thousand soldiers could thump the green table and raise his voice. A "technique" had grown up for this kind of warfare and had been elaborately formalized in a number of military treatises.

When the kings of Europe wanted to punish the French Revolution, they confided the task to these "orthodox" armies. Danton's voice and genius inspired and organized the *levée en masse*. The French people rose to his call and went forth to defend their frontiers, and the armies of the kings were powerless.

It was the genius of Napoleon that made him first to recognize the possibilities of this new phenomenon—a nation in arms. He led the manhood of France up and down through Europe, and was never defeated by the old-fashioned armies. He was not checked until Scharnhorst saw the necessity of fighting the devil with his own fire and began to arm the people of Prussia. Napoleon tried to push his victories too far—past the "point of climax," to use Clausewitz's phrase—and, having taught the kings of Europe the secret of his success, was defeated by them.

Clausewitz, having lived and fought through all this period, sat down after the peace to think it all out and to classify and arrange his conclusions for the benefit of Prussian cadets. The rules of the game which had governed the moves of the rather listless professional armies would not serve in the passionate wars of armed nations. He had to mold a new theory of war for the new conditions.

Modern inventions—long-range firearms and railways—have, of course, modified some of Clausewitz's conclusions. But very rarely has a theorist been more often proved right by the event. His principal points still hold good and throw light on some obscure phases of the present war.

His first principle is that war is a normal activity of "the state." A government has two weapons with which to work out its destiny—diplomacy and war. He was forever insisting on the necessity of co-ordinating these two arms. After discussing the uses of diplomacy, he says: "War is only a continuation of state policy by the other means."

Clausewitz was given up entirely to the study of concrete, observed facts. He did not speculate. The world in which he lived consisted of a large assortment of "states." This word, which he uses frequently, was not very clear in his mind. He did not philosophize about words, he described realities, and "the state" meant for him the king, his ministers, his army, and his subjects. Uniformly "the states" he had observed were ambitious, and the only growth they recognized was territorial. As there was no unappropriated land in Europe, the only chance for "the state" to grow was at the cost of another "state." Therefore "states" were, to his mind, inherently hostile.

He describes a campaign as a chain of battles strung one after the other like the beads of a necklace. "One battle leads to the next. . . . If the action of war ceases, *i. e.*, if both sides momentarily do not will any advance, there is rest—equilibrium. But as soon as either party wills a new positive move and begins to prepare for it tension is re-established." This alteration of equilibrium and tension continues until one side has accomplished its purpose. The rest between battles is an interruption—a regrettable necessity—in the normal progress of war. Clausewitz is forever praising Napoleon for the speed with which he followed up his victories and so prevented the enemy from reforming. And this idea of a single campaign is, in a small way, Clausewitz's theory of history. "There are times when both nations not only feel too weak to strike, but actually are too fatigued for war." These are times of peace—when the nations are too out of breath from their last tussle for further fighting. "The state" during such periods must seek to accomplish its purposes by diplomacy.

As a description of his own times, Clausewitz's theory of the place of war in statecraft was amazingly realistic—however inadequate it may seem to-day. After all, he was a soldier in an epoch when the best brains went in

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for fighting. And he was one of those simple-minded people who believe that you cannot change human nature. But no book I have ever read has so vividly impressed me with the way human nature does change. To his mind *Weltpolitik*, as long as the world lasted, would consist of the struggles of petty kings snarling and scrapping over unwilling provinces. If the modern Germans had studied their own times as ardently as Clausewitz studied his, they would have recognized—as Napoleon forced him to recognize—that the times have changed, that new formulas are needed. Instead they have read his description of a day which is long past.

When Clausewitz wrote of statecraft he was beyond his depth, but when he wrote of war he knew what he was talking about. His descendants have accepted his theory of politics and have neglected his military advice.

In his military theory he, first of all, makes a sharp distinction between "absolute war," which has for its object the complete subjugation of the enemy to the will of the victor, and "limited war," with some definite and relatively small gain in view. When Louis XIV snatched the upper Rhine provinces from the Germans, it was limited war. Having attained his purpose, he was quite ready to make peace. He had no desire to push the humiliation further. Our war with Spain was also limited. We set out to drive the Spaniards from Cuba, and when that was accomplished we were through. Clausewitz's last campaign against Napoleon was "absolute war." After Waterloo the armies of the coalition marched to Paris and dictated terms in the French capital. If necessary, they would have marched on to Bordeaux. They had not finished until the French were unable to resist any longer. The Prussian War with Austria in 1868 was "limited," the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 was "absolute."

Clausewitz, in reviewing all the wars he had seen or read about, attributes most historic disasters to failure in keeping this distinction in mind. His criticism is scathing of the purblind kings who, having a limited object in view or limited means at their disposal, have allowed themselves to be drawn into "absolute war." The examples he cites are forgotten history to most of us, but if he had lived to-day he would have commended the Japanese. In their two wars they had the foresight to see that their means and their aims were limited. It would have been idiocy for them to have attempted the subjugation of China or Russia. They have just successfully completed a limited campaign against Germany. They have done what they set out to do. If they now expand their original intention and send troops to Europe, it will mean that they have decided to join the Allies in an absolute war.

Clausewitz continually hammers on this point. War is an integral part of "state" policy. Statesmen must have minds free from illusions; they must understand war and have a realistic knowledge of their military power. They must limit their ambitions to their strength, and not ask the impossible of their armies. He believes in accepting humiliation rather than in that pride which is not backed by the force to make its claims good.

It is evident that the strength of Germany and Austria in 1914 was equal to certain limited tasks. Austria was strong enough to crush Servia. Germany was strong enough to subjugate Belgium, and perhaps France. But it is extremely improbable that they will prove able to wage absolute war with their present enemies. If they are defeated—as all the signs of the day indicate—Clausewitz would have blamed, not their military leaders, but their statesmen. The German "states" committed one of two errors. They either expected of their armies work much beyond their strength, or they were blind to the fact that their aggression against Servia and Belgium would generate a war as absolute as that which Europe waged against Napoleon.

Clausewitz introduced two new formulas into the phraseology of war—"friction" and "the climax of victory." By the first he meant all those inestimable obstacles which make closet plans of campaign hard to realize on the field. "Activity in war is movement in a resisting medium." "Among those elements which meet in the atmosphere of war, causing friction to every activity, are physical danger, bodily fatigue, bad weather, and false information." In another place he says that almost all reports which a general receives on the eve of battle and during its progress are misleading. "It is such friction which makes that which looks so easy so very difficult in reality." The pre-Napoleonic writers on strategy gave great space to elaborate war plans. The battle-front, the main and subsidiary lines of communication, all were supposed to bear a definite geometric relation to the "base." Such plans looked very

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beautiful when drawn on the uncertain maps of the day. But Napoleon triumphed by common sense and simplicity. He kept his forces concentrated, moved them rapidly, and fought the enemy at every chance. It was one of his dictums that, if you defeat the enemy every time you encounter him, no amount of intricate strategy will help him. Again and again Clausewitz had seen theoretically perfect plans smashed to pieces by a combination of muddy roads and French dashing recklessness. An experienced officer, he says, differs from the young cadet because he knows something about such friction.

Simplify! Simplify! That is the main point in all of the volumes of Clausewitz. The more complex the plan of campaign, the greater the friction. It is a maxim endlessly repeated and always illustrated by an explanation of one of Napoleon's victories. After recounting dozens of such instances he drives home his doctrine of simplicity in words which evoke the very spirit of all Napoleon's triumphs. "A bold, courageous, and energetic enemy will not give us time to develop our wide-reaching, skillful combinations."

Clausewitz would have shaken his head over the plans of the German General Staff in the summer of 1914. "Very pretty," he would have said. "Perhaps you can rush von Kluck up to the walls of Paris on schedule time. But suppose that friction develops at Liège. Suppose the Crown Prince or the Duke of Wurtemberg fails to overcome the friction farther east. Von Kluck will be left high and dry. I like the old von Moltke's plan better—it was simpler—hack through by the shortest route."

He would have been even less pleased with the plan for the Russian campaign—at least the later phases of it. One of the characteristics of Napoleon's wars which Clausewitz studies and formulates was his lack of interest in localities, even if they were labeled "strategic points." Clausewitz argues that the one sound goal for an army is the destruction of the other army. There is very little gain in capturing a place. He would have opposed the offensive campaign against Warsaw. A victory which does not destroy the opposing army only leads to a new effort, a new advance, an increased distance from the base of supplies, more friction, and a new battle in less favorable conditions. Napoleon had little trouble in defeating the Russians until he pursued them into Russia. Von Hindenburg's first campaign in East Prussia, when he defeated the Russians at Tannenberg—ground of his own choosing—was entirely according to Clausewitz. But the Polish campaigns are absolutely opposed to his theories.

Clausewitz, in his idea that there is a limit to victory, that there is a climactic point beyond which progress cannot be made—a point where the offensive changes to the defensive—made a generalization which illumines the history of all wars, and especially of this conflict. It was on this idea, which is only an extension of his theory of friction, that he was especially insistent that the policy of "the state" should be dictated on a realistic knowledge of war. That an army gets the habit of victory is a fallacy which he treats with scorn. Every victory has its cost. Immense friction must be overcome, and the advancing army is weakened thereby. Enough victories would reduce any army to impotence. "Almost always there comes the climax of victory; . . . to push beyond this point is worse than wasted effort, it is destruction." And Clausewitz looks almost in vain through the history of war for a "state" which recognized this culminating point and stopped. One great general after another, from Cæsar to Napoleon, tried to out-drive his luck and went to utter destruction.

There is a magnificent passage in Juvenal's "Tenth Satire" on this point. He pictures Hannibal finding Africa too small for his ambitions, crossing into Spain, leaping across the Alps, defeating the Roman armies under the walls of the Eternal City, and saying that he would not be content until he signed a treaty in the Senate House, trying to push beyond this mystic culminating point—only to die a sycophant in the court of an Oriental despot, "a subject for Roman school-boys in their declamations."

In modern warfare, where the concentration of all the available energy of "the state" is much more rapid, where the full strength of the nation is brought to bear in the opening campaign, this climactic or culminating point must come much sooner than in Clausewitz's day, but just as inevitably.

Will this war end, as the wars Clausewitz knew ended, in the destruction which follows too vast ambitions, in the fall which follows undue pride?

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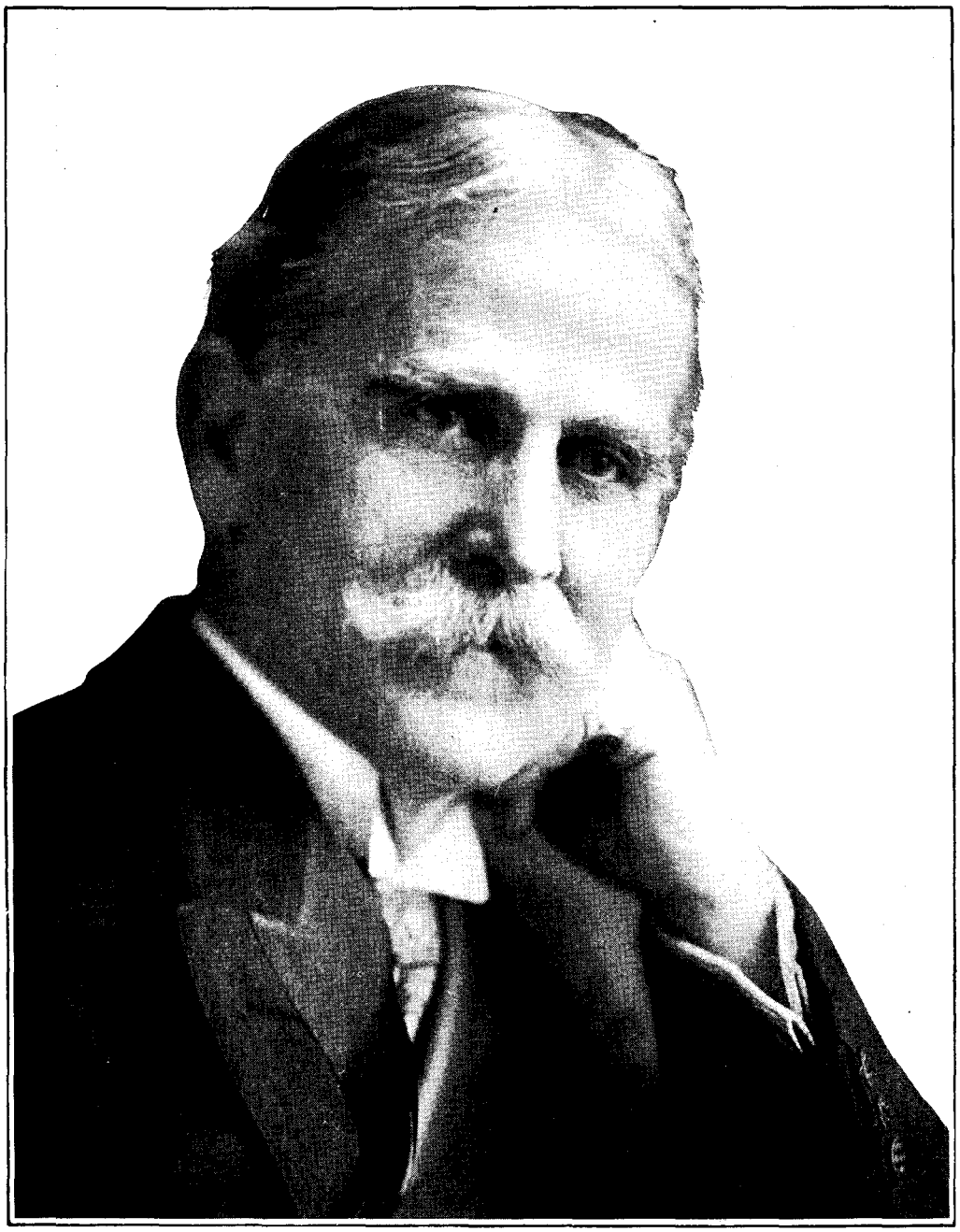

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HENRY VAN DYKE
AMERICAN MINISTER TO THE HAGUE AND TO LUXEMBURG

Following closely the German threat to attack merchantmen without warning, thus endangering American and other neutral vessels and the lives of those on board, came the report of German interference with Dr. van Dyke's duties as American Minister to the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. It was asserted that the German Commander at Trèves, Germany, near the Luxemburg boundary, had refused to allow Dr. van Dyke's letters, sealed with the seal of the American Legation, to pass. Luxemburg is not a belligerent country, and Holland is not. Interference with the American Minister's diplomatic privileges, unwarranted at best, seemed doubly offensive in view of that fact. Editorial reference to this incident is to be found elsewhere in this issue

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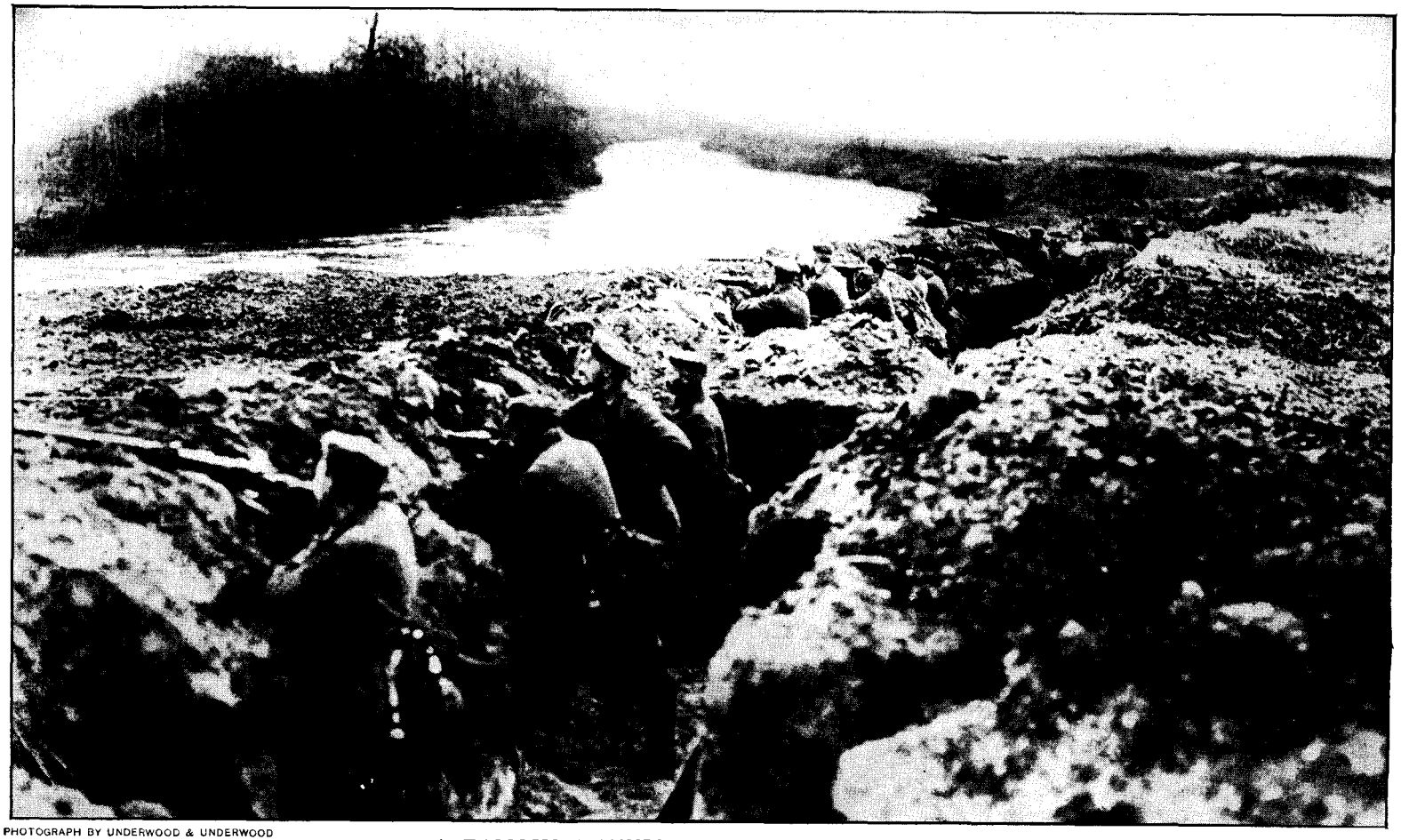

PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

A FAMOUS BATTLE-GROUND OF THE WAR

The picture shows the River Aisne in northern France, the French being concealed on the wooded side of the stream, while the Germans are in the trenches beside the river, which at this place resembles a moat in its narrowness. Like a moat, it makes an excellent defensive work, and such it has proved in the many attacks and counter-attacks which have taken place in the endeavor to secure possession of the river and the adjacent territory

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THE CAVE-DWELLERS OF SOISSONS

This small French city has been shelled almost continuously for several months. Many of its remaining inhabitants have taken refuge in the cellars of their homes, and a group of these are shown as they sought protection in one of these shelters during a recent bombardment by the Germans

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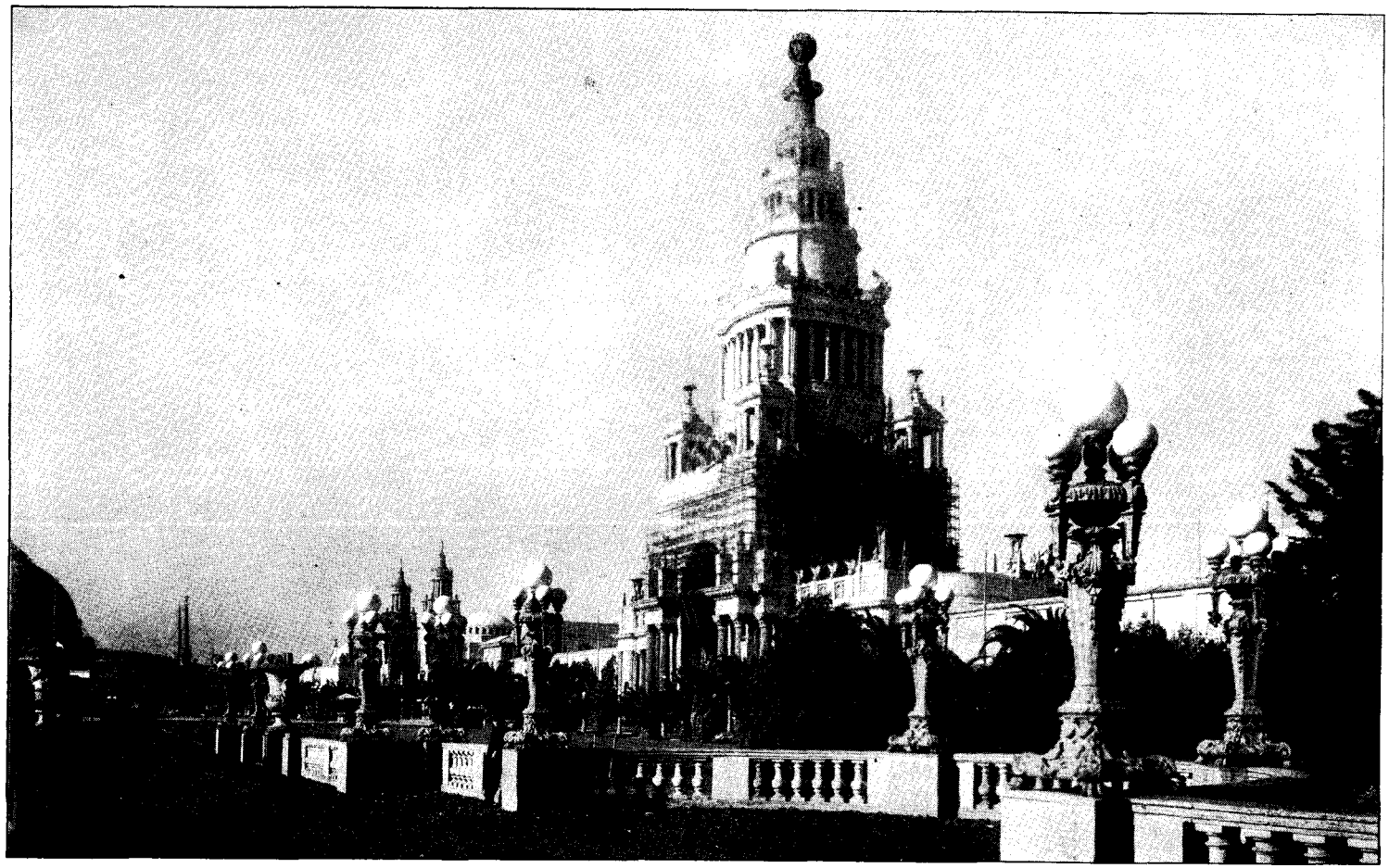

THE TOWER OF JEWELS

This tower, 435 feet in height, is covered with crystals in imitation of precious stones. By night it will be flooded with light from concealed searchlights. Its successive platforms are richly sculptured

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GENERAL VIEW OF THE EXPOSITION GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS, AS SEEN FROM AN AEROPLANE

The view, extensive as it appears, shows only a portion of the main exhibit section, the various buildings of which are seen in the center of the picture. In the left foreground the dark-colored edifice is the Oregon Building, whose 48 pillars are composed of mammoth firs, each representing one of the States in the Union. To the right of the Oregon Building is the New York State Building; further to the right (on the opposite side of the street which runs from east to west past the exhibit section and which is called the Avenue of the Nations) is the Netherlands Pavilion; while at the extreme right of the photograph is seen the great circular Palace of Fine Arts, which describes an arc 1,110 feet in its outside perimeter. In the extreme foreground, in front of the Oregon Building, is the New Jersey Building, with the Pennsylvania Building on its right. The great California Building faces the Oregon Building and the New York State Building. In the center of the picture is the Tower of Jewels, a nearer view of which appears on the preceding page. In the background is the city of San Francisco

THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AT SAN FRANCISCO, OPENED FEBRUARY 20, 1915

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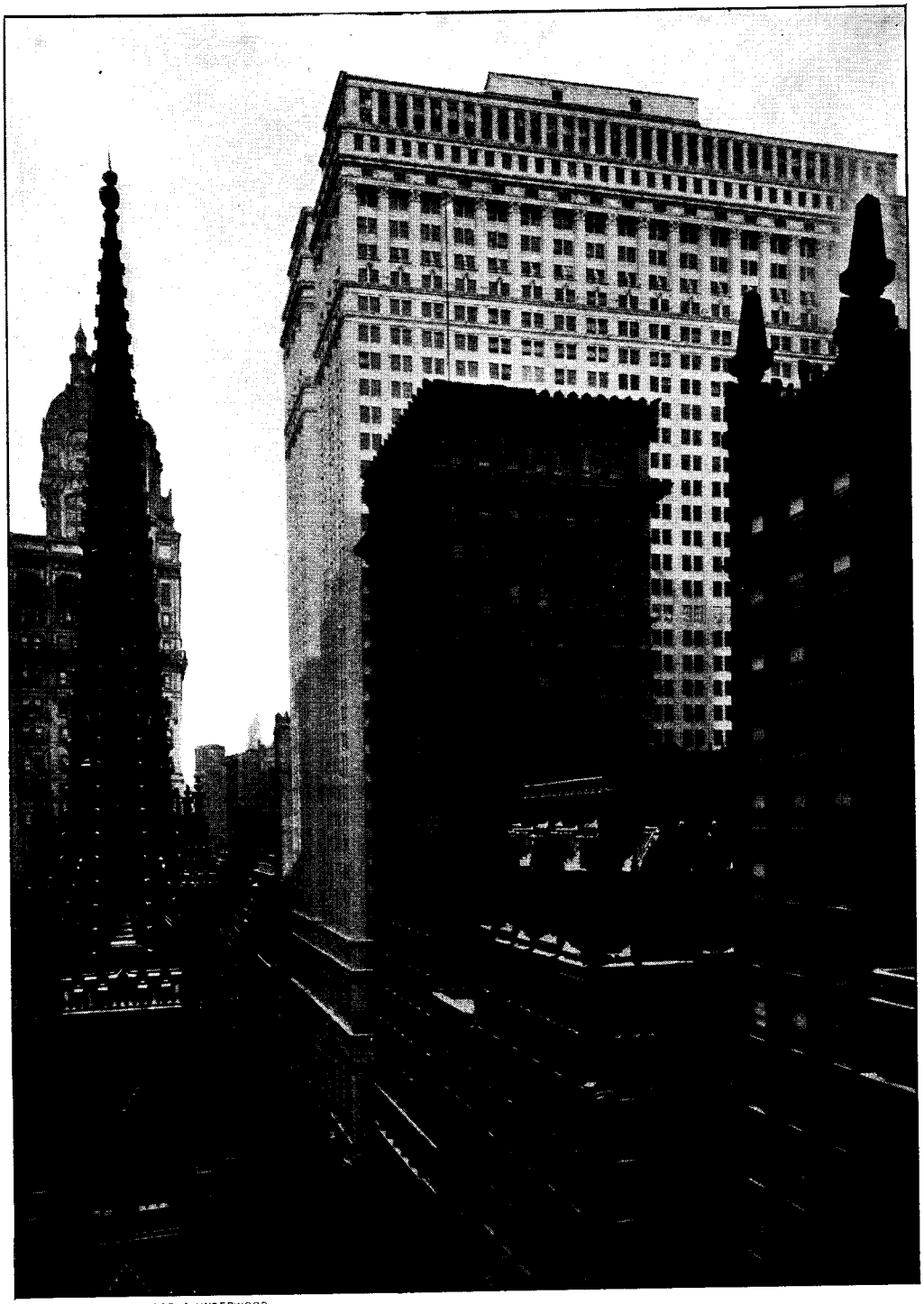

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THE NEW EQUITABLE BUILDING, IN THE HEART OF THE "FINANCIAL DISTRICT"

The new building of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, built on the site of the one destroyed by fire in 1912, is one of the largest office buildings in the world. It is 41 stories high and has nearly 45 acres of floor space. It cost approximately $29,000,000

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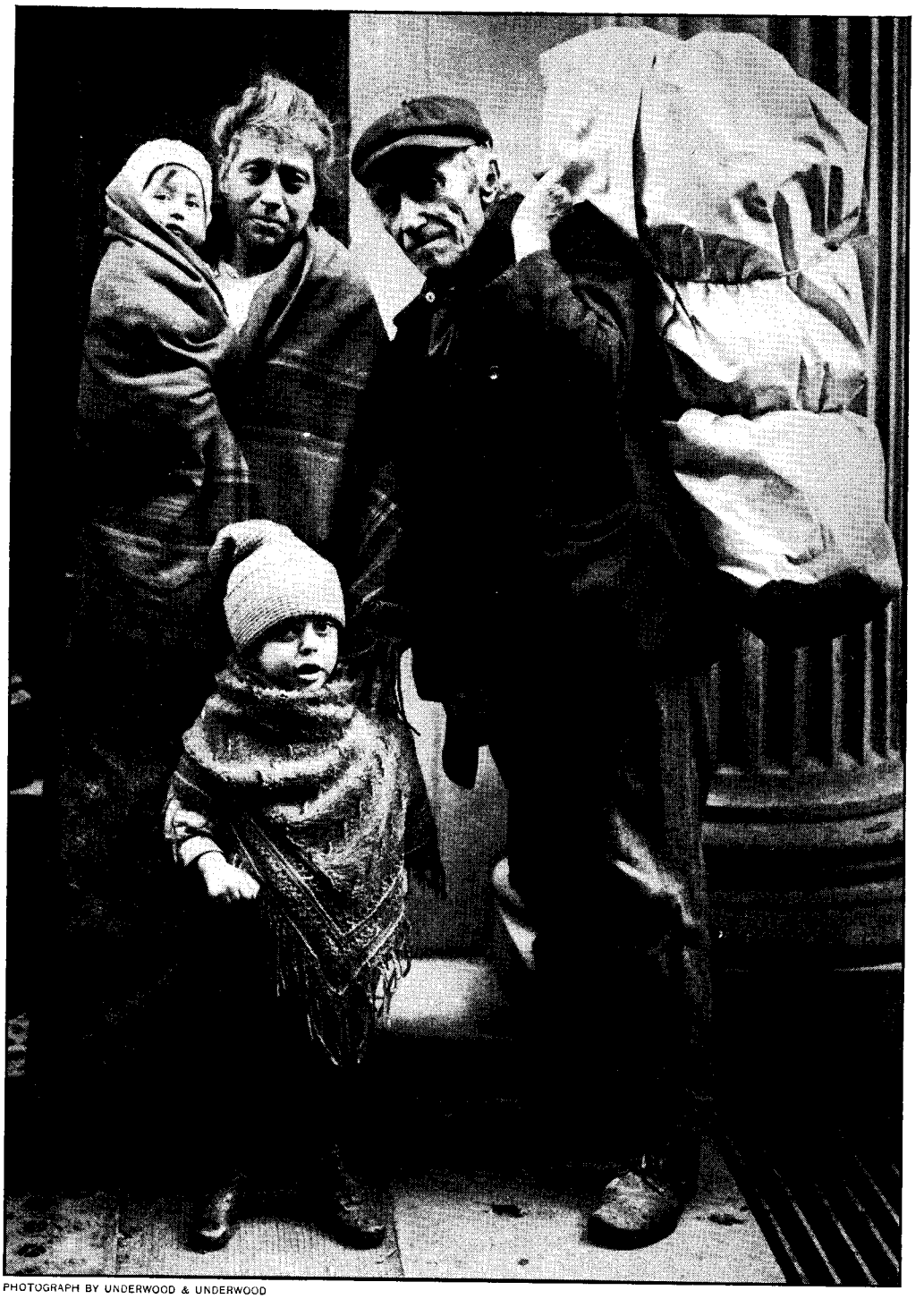

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SOME OF THE BENEFICIARIES OF "BUNDLE DAY," WITH A PACKAGE OF CAST-OFF CLOTHES

New York recently had its "bundle day," on which occasion a vast collection of packages containing all sorts of useful used articles were donated to the cause of charity. When the bundles had been classified, their distribution began to the thousands of poverty-stricken people who applied for them

AND ITS POVERTY

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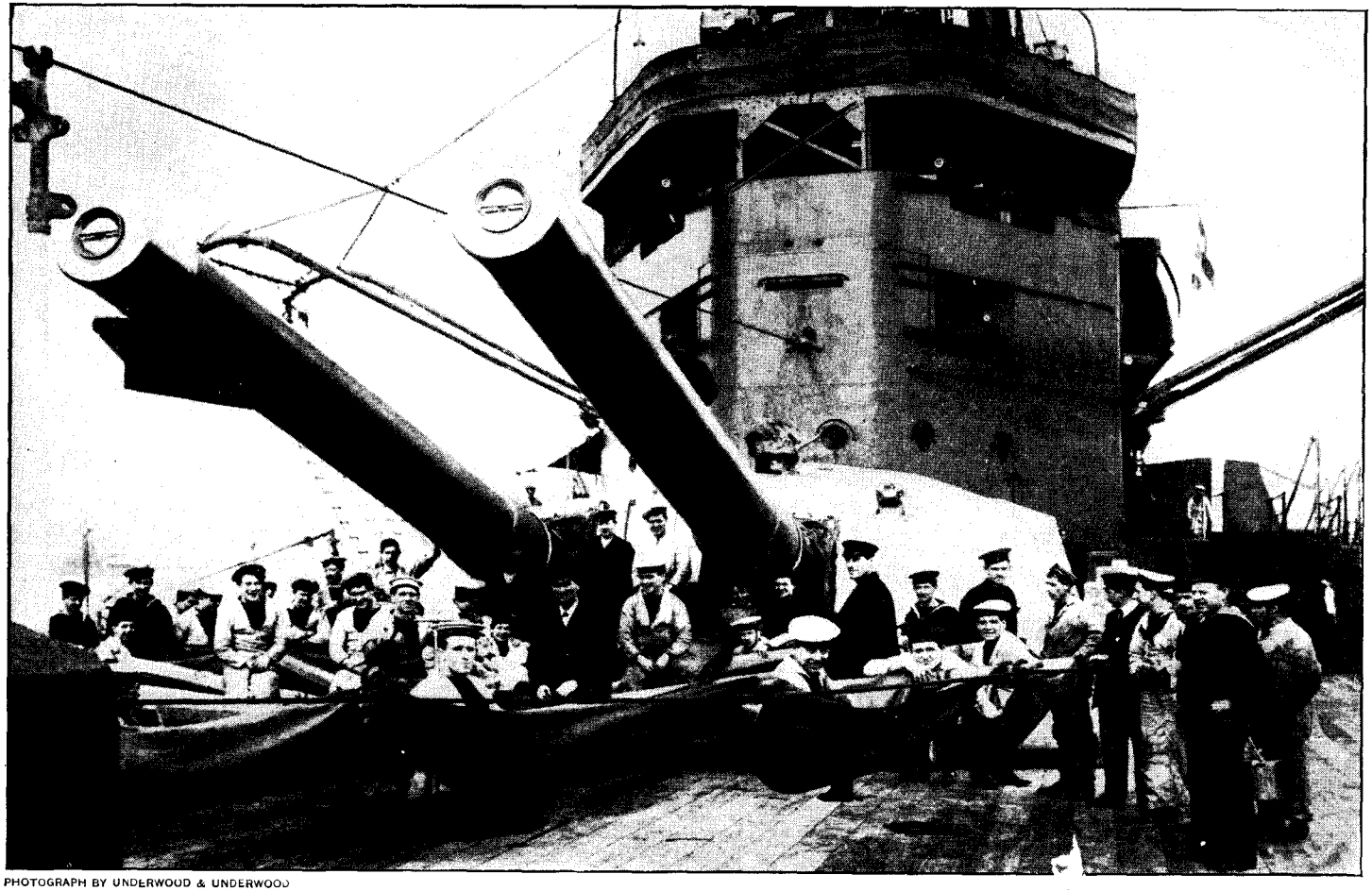

PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

A SPLENDID GIFT TO GREAT BRITAIN FROM HER LOYAL SONS

The battle-ship New Zealand, shown in the above picture, was presented to the mother country by the people of New Zealand, the money being raised by public subscription. The ship took part in the recent sea battle in which the German cruiser Blücher was destroyed, the New Zealand's commander receiving from the High Commissioner of the colony, on the day after the engagement, the message, "Well done, Halsey!"

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THE HIGH COST OF SMOKE

BY LEWIS EDWIN THEISS

CONSTANT repetition often gives to a statement weight and authority which it by no means deserves. So long have we been assured that smoking factory chimneys mean prosperity that we have come to consider a smoke-filled atmosphere as synonymous with a full pocketbook. Now comes the University of Pittsburgh, after an exhaustive smoke inquiry, assuring us that smoking factory chimneys, far from being a sign of prosperity, are the emblem of waste; that a smoky sky, instead of filling our pockets, puts a steady drain on them. So enormous, in fact, is the waste caused by smoking factory chimneys, that our economic loss from this cause alone annually far exceeds the entire cost of the Panama Canal.

Smoke is waste. Black smoke consists largely of unconsumed coal particles thrown into the atmosphere by improper stoking. Investigating every type of hand-stoked and machine-fed furnace, the Pittsburgh investigators found that the loss up the stack is fully twenty-five per cent. By careful stoking, 3.6 pounds of coal can be made to do the work ordinarily accomplished by 4.6 pounds. This means a saving of 21.7 per cent of the present fuel consumption. In the Pittsburgh district 16,000,000 tons of coal, worth $20,000,000, are used annually. The portion of this coal thrown away in smoke is estimated by Mr. J. J. O'Connor, Jr., the economist for the investigating staff, to be worth $4,340,000.

Aside from its coal content, smoke contains acids of value. These can be isolated in commercial forms. Usually they are thrown away. It is estimated that the smelters near Salt Lake City daily throw away in smoke acids worth $10,000.

The acids in smoke include sulphuric acid, sulphurous acid, hydrochloric acid, ammonia compounds, etc. A large part of these acids is contained in the soot and the tar of smoke. The soot absorbs them, and the tar, mixing with it, sticks it fast to everything it touches. Thus held in close contact, the acids of smoke work destruction on everything they touch. Rain and air make them more actively destructive. Thus the comparatively harmless sulphurous acid is rapidly changed by the oxygen of the air into the far more corrosive sulphuric acid. The acids held by the soot and tar do much more damage than those which escape into the air. Where metals are concerned galvanic action is likely to be set up. Neither rainfall nor wind can sweep away the soot held by tar. So the destructive acids are held fast where they can do most harm. By our reckless carelessness with our furnaces we send up day and night clouds that later return to plague us.

Gravity brings the heavier particles to earth, and the rainfall washes the skies of the lighter particles. The amount of soot and tar thus brought to earth is incredible. In the center of London the annual soot deposit equals 426 tons to the square mile, with 539 tons in Leeds, while in Glasgow the yearly rate of deposit per square mile amounts to 820 tons. The combustion of coal in the British Isles produces about 3,000,000 tons of sulphuric acid annually. The sulphur content of the smoke given off by Pittsburgh furnaces alone is estimated at 500,000 tons a year.

With this acid-filled smoke glued fast to everything it touches, it can easily be seen that the resulting damage is enormous. Building materials of all kinds are harmed by smoke. Metals are corroded and tarnished. Metal roofs are eaten away. In some cases structural ironwork has been so corroded as to endanger an entire structure. If all the acid yearly poured forth by Pittsburgh chimneys were to act upon structural iron, it could dissolve completely 265,000 tons and render useless many tons more. The corrosion of either protected or unprotected ironwork is much more rapid in smoky cities than in the country. Experiments made in England show that unprotected iron corrodes six times as rapidly in town air as in the pure air of the country.

Zinc is affected by even the most dilute acids. Tin is little affected. Copper is slightly harmed by sulphur acids, and copper and brass are particularly sensitive to hydrogen sulphide. This is well shown by the familiar blackening of copper and brass signs, which necessitates constant polishing. Hydrogen sulphide blackens silver. A piece of metallic aluminum one-sixteenth of an inch thick was completely corroded away by three years of exposure to Pittsburgh air. The life of all metals is found to be much shorter in

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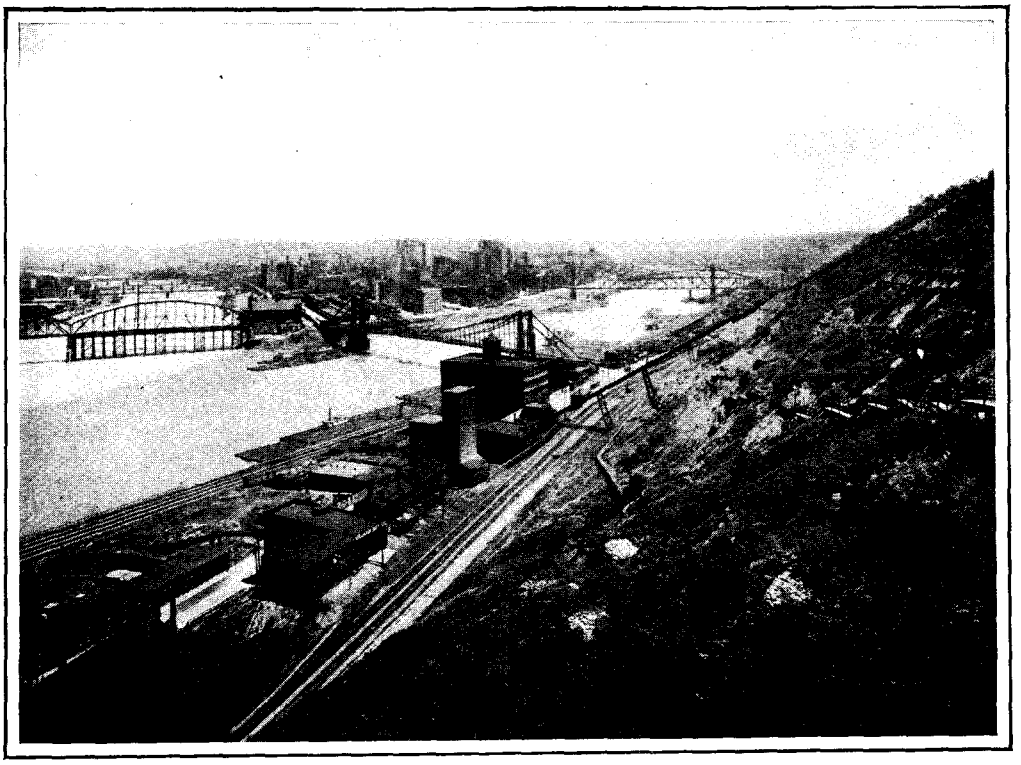

PHOTOGRAPH BY THE SMOKE INVESTIGATION OF THE MELLON INSTITUTE

A VIEW OF A DOWNTOWN SECTION OF PITTSBURGH WHEN THE CITY WAS FREE FROM SMOKE

Pittsburgh than in smoke-free cities like Washington. Metals must be painted twice as often in Pittsburgh as in a smoke-free city, and removed in one-half the length of time.

Building stones, like iron, are disintegrated by smoke. Commonly we think of smoke as working only an æsthetic damage to stone structures—and even that is no trifle. But smoke works far more harm than this. It causes stone to crumble. Pittsburgh's soot-fall varies in different parts of the city from 595 to 1,950 tons per square mile a year. If an amount of lampblack equal to the larger soot-fall were ground with oil so as to form black paint, it would cover fifty-seven square miles of surface with two coats. The destructive possibilities of Pittsburgh's soot-fall thus become evident. Stuck fast by tar, and indissoluble by rainfall, this soot can be removed only by drastic measures, such as scouring, the use of solvents, or the sand blast. To be rentable buildings must be kept clean and attractive. The cost of keeping them clean places a heavy tax upon property-owners, and this tax, like the cost to the manufacturers for the smoke that produced it, is passed along to the public by means of higher prices.

The acids contained in soot injure building stones just as they harm metals. The sulphuric acid contained in the smoke of Pittsburgh is sufficient, if allowed to act on limestone, to destroy 500,000 tons of that material. Limestones, dolomite, and sandstones with a calcareous cementing material are directly disintegrated by smoke. Granite, gneiss, and sandstones held together by some cementing substance other than a carbonate are but little corroded by smoke. But these stones are costly and difficult to handle. They are readily soiled, and when finished in the rough are extremely difficult to clean. Nothing short of a scouring with acids or the sand blast will clean them. Either of these operations is harmful to stone. The protecting crust formed by nature on the exterior of the stones is worn away and the stone begins to crumble. On stones of the limestone group the acids of combustion act directly, disintegrating them badly. In many of the older buildings in Pittsburgh the smoke has eaten out the mortar to a depth of one-third to two-fifths of an inch.

In England and elsewhere abroad the preservation of ancient stone buildings has become

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PHOTOGRAPH BY THE SMOKE INVESTIGATION OF THE MELLON INSTITUTE

SAME VIEW OF A DOWNTOWN SECTION OF PITTSBURGH ON A SMOKY DAY

a serious problem. One of Great Britain's historic old buildings has become so soft that the mere rubbing of the surface will remove a quarter of an inch of decayed stone. Chemical analysis of this stone shows that this decay is due to the action of sulphur acids in the air.

Interior decorations and construction materials suffer equally. Wall paper, paint, hangings, and furnishings of all kinds must be renewed and cleaned perhaps twice as often as is necessary in clean cities. To keep his linen clean costs a Pittsburgher $3.12, where it costs a Bostonian $2.35, and a resident of Washington $2.40.

Again, the smoke pall shuts out a large part of the sunlight. The smoke-free city of Los Angeles receives 60 to 75 per cent of the possible sunshine. Pittsburgh gets only 38 to 58 per cent. This deficiency must be made up by the use of artificial light. All these things lay a heavy tax upon the individual pocketbook.

But the most serious loss we suffer from smoke is the damage done to the health and spirits of our people. Fogs, dark, cloudy days, decreased hours of sunshine, all are caused at times by smoke. The population living within the affected areas suffer in consequence from gloom, depression, discouragement, and resulting inefficiency. Just how great is the mental damage thus caused we cannot as yet determine; but that it is very considerable no one can doubt.

The physical havoc is tremendous. Every man and woman breathes about 2,000 gallons of air in twenty-four hours, or about 34 pounds in weight, as contrasted with a daily intake of five and one-half pounds of liquid and solid food. In other words, the weight of the air inhaled daily is more than six times the weight of the food consumed daily. To quote Dr. J. E. Wallace-Wallin, Director of the Psychological Clinic of the University of Pittsburgh: "It does not seem an exaggeration to say that more persons are devitalized, disabled, and poisoned by the impurities contained in smoke-polluted air than by the noxious ingredients in food and water. Not only do the solid ingredients of smoke-begrimed air irritate the sensitive membranes of the eyes, nose, throat, and lungs, and thus cause or aggravate inflammatory diseases of these organs or increase susceptibility to such

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specific diseases as bronchitis, pneumonia, and subacute forms of phthisis, but the poisonous compounds also enter the gastro-intestinal tract, and this causes nausea, vomiting, diarrhœa, and systematic poisoning."

This statement, in the light of experiments made by Saito, is easily credible. Saito caused a man to inhale white-lead dust for from ten to fifteen minutes on twenty different occasions, and to avoid swallowing during the experiments. Of the dust thus inhaled 95 per cent remained in the body of the subject, half of which was retained in the nasal passages, while 12 per cent probably found its way to the lungs.

What, then, must be the condition of persons who constantly breathe smoke-laden air? The weight of the solid matter in the smoky air of Leeds has been found to be 200 pounds per square mile, while the dust particles vary in number from 530,000 to 3,736,000 per cubic inch. A large percentage of these particles consists of smoke and soot. Dense though the atmosphere of Leeds is, that of Pittsburgh is in places nearly three times as dense. In consequence, innumerable poisonous and irritating particles get into the mouth, nose, and lungs of every one who breathes the air. In the lungs of a Pittsburgh street peddler 10.6 grams of such foreign substances were found.

Persons whose lungs are thus irritated readily fall a prey to pulmonary diseases. Singers on visiting Pittsburgh usually get "Pittsburgh sore throat." The writer knows a traveler who, visiting Salt Lake City at one of those periods when the city is buried in smelter smoke, contracted a serious laryngeal trouble and even completely lost his voice during a stay of one week in that city. The attending physician said the affection was due to smoke. One of the conspicuously serious facts established by the Pittsburgh smoke investigation is the virulency of acute lung diseases in smoke-infested atmospheres. While the course of chronic lung diseases, like tuberculosis, appears not to be hastened by smoke, acute diseases, like pneumonia, carry off their victims in smoky neighborhoods with frightful rapidity.

Finkelburg has shown that in England the mortality from affections of the bronchial tubes is more than half as great again in towns as in the country, and that it rises to an unusual height in places where coal is much used. In Germany the mortality from acute pulmonary diseases has increased, and the course of pulmonary tuberculosis has been accelerated, as the country becomes more industrial. The increase in non-tubercular lung mortality has amounted to 30 per cent in the smoky town of Waldenburg as compared with the near-by smokeless town of Wusterwaltersdorf. The death rate per ten thousand for the same diseases is 30.6 in the non-smoky city of Hamm, as compared with a rate of 57.4 for the smoky city of Gelserkirchen. In all German towns with a population of more than 15,000 the death rate is 24, while in the smoky industrial centers of similar size in Rhenish Westphalia it is 34, and in the industrial districts in upper Silesia it is 36. In rural districts in England it is 17.5, compared with 26.5 in urban industrial districts. Dr. W. C. White's investigation shows that in Pittsburgh pneumonia increases with the density of atmospheric smoke, irrespective of poverty or the density of population.

Similar facts have been set forth by Dr. Ascher, of Koenigsberg. He found also that animals that had inhaled smoke developed pneumonia more easily than animals that had not inhaled smoke. Likewise he has demonstrated that tuberculous patients, both male and female, die at an earlier age than formerly. Of every one hundred persons dying of tuberculosis in Prussia in 1876, 36 males and 32 females were more than fifty years of age. In 1901 only 28 tuberculous males and 23 females survived the age of fifty. This means that, though the death rate for tuberculosis may not be on the increase, in smoky districts the disease runs its fatal course in shorter time. In our own country, because of the persistent war we wage on tuberculosis, the death rate from that disease is slowly decreasing. But if Dr. Ascher's findings hold true in our own country, our tubercular population, though not increasing in number, is dying at an earlier age.

Our pneumonia death rate, however, shows an appalling increase. In 1900 the pneumonia death toll was 105,971; for 1909 it was 122,400; and for 1910 it was 136,000—an increase of ten per cent in one year. Dr. Ascher's statistics also show that since 1875 the number of infant deaths from pneumonia has increased six hundred per cent. These increased death rates are largely attributable to the growing smokiness of our atmosphere.

Even where death does not ensue from dwelling in a smoky region, there can be no doubt that much of human energy and hap-

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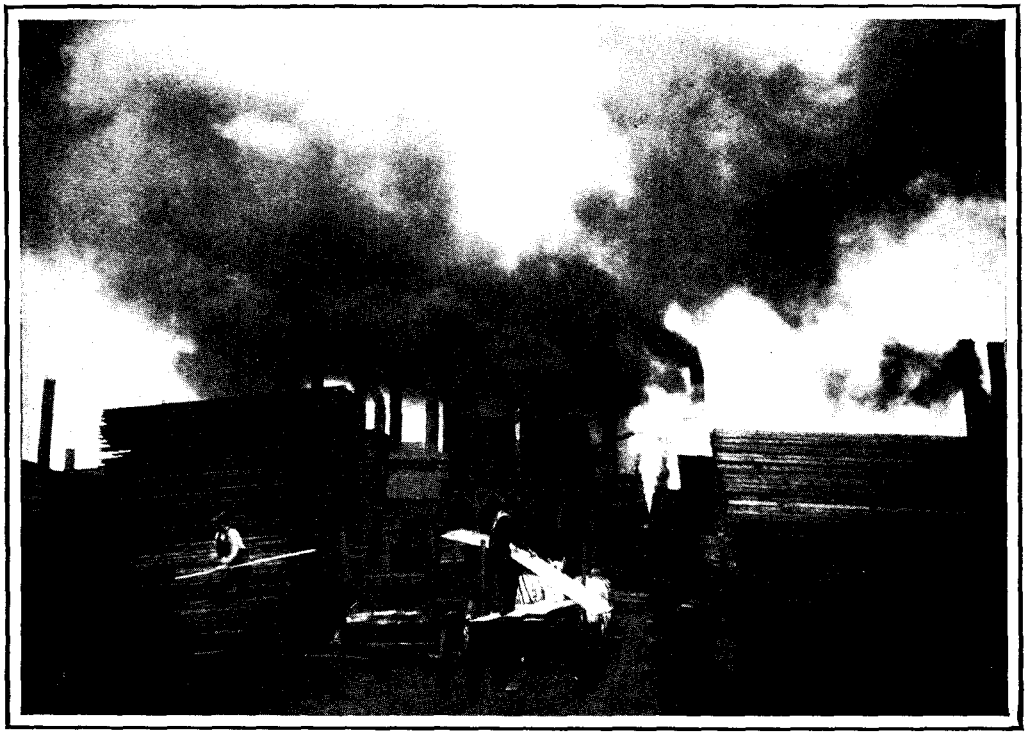
piness is wasted as a result of breathing noxious vapors. Dr. Tatham, medical health officer of Manchester, England, says in his report for the year 1890 that through breathing smoke the working life of the people in central Manchester is curtailed by ten years. "Our people lose thirty per cent of their lives," he says. "The acids of smoke and carbon particles operate upon the lungs for years before they finally destroy them." If the criterion of physical fitness for army service may be taken as an index of the health of the citizens of a smoky city, the statistics for Manchester, according to Horsfall, reveal an appalling condition. This author says that in Manchester in 1899, out of 11,000 men who wanted to enlist, only nine per cent were found to be physically fit for the regiments of the line, and at the time he wrote the navy could accept only fourteen per cent of the boys belonging to all grades of society who wanted to join. The constant inhalation of poison-laden air diminishes the potential reserve, the productive efficiency, and the bodily well-being. Gradually we absorb the poisonous products that we breathe, and this process of slow poisoning may insidiously eat away, like a mild canker, at our vital tissues, thereby gradually draining our bodies and brains and reducing our efficiency.

Viewed from any angle whatsoever, the pollution of our atmosphere with smoke places a heavy burden upon us. It greatly increases the death rate. It adds to the number of the sickly. It lowers our efficiency. It takes large sums of money out of our pockets. Engineers have estimated that the cost to the city of Cleveland because of its smoking factories is $6,000,000 a year. The loss to Chicago is estimated at $17,600,000 a year. The people of Pittsburgh suffer an annual loss of $10,000,000 through smoke. And the entire bill paid annually by the people of the United States on account of smoking factory chimneys is reckoned at $500,000,000.

One Pittsburgh manufacturing company alone has effected a saving of $60,000 a year through the abolition of smoke in its chimneys. In a recent annual report the president of this corporation writes as follows: "To do away with the smoke evil, to save labor, and to make fuel consumption



PHOTOGRAPH BY THE SMOKE INVESTIGATION OF THE MELLON INSTITUTE

A LUMBER YARD IN THE VICINITY OF THE FACTORIES

These boards, fresh and clean when they came from the lumber camps, soon become covered with soot and tar

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the more effective, . . . we have scrapped an old plant of 55 boilers, and have replaced them with eight 600 horse-power units having double steam pressure and with mechanical stokers. These eight boilers cost, with boiler-house, coal, and ash-handling apparatus, including every mechanism known to produce an up-to-date plant, but $132,000.

"This new installation is saving $1,500 a month in pay-roll and $3,000 per month in coal, equal to $60,000 per annum, or 6 per cent on $1,000,000. In addition, it has increased the capacity of the whole mill through a greater steam supply."

The plant which was scrapped was one of the worst smokers in Pittsburgh. Along with this saving of $60,000 must be reckoned a further saving to the people of the vicinity estimated at twice this amount.

Like many another ill under which we suffer, the smoke nuisance, as is shown by this incident, is an unnecessary one. The installation of smoke-consuming machinery and proper stoking will readily abate the smoke nuisance. We have tolerated this nuisance because we have not realized the seriousness of it. Our enlightened manufacturers will henceforth begin to abate the smoke nuisance in their own establishments as a matter of economy. Others should be compelled to abate the nuisance by effective smoke laws properly enforced. In the past we have looked, if not with pride, at least with toleration upon our smoking factory chimneys as the emblem of prosperity. Now that we know that they are the symbol of incredible National waste, let us do away with them.

BEHIND THE SCENES IN A DEPARTMENT STORE

BY ANNE EMERSON

*It should be pointed out that this article, which describes what is done for the health, comfort, and pleasure of employees in one New York department store, represents an exceptionally high state of welfare work. Many excellent things have been done in several of the great stores, but much remains to be done before conditions are satisfactory.—*THE EDITORS.

UP on a sun-bathed roof, eleven stories above the rushing traffic of the New York City streets, a number of young men and girls are gathered in groups; some lolling idly in the big wicker easy chairs, discussing the good times to which they are looking forward, some standing about in one corner of the promenade where the winter sun is warmest, or perhaps two or three of them are dozing on the wicker lounges. In the far corner of the solarium half a dozen small boys are excitedly watching a checker game, their keen young minds watching for the next move of the game. Through the big glass doors at the far end of the cheery sun parlor a number of girls are lingering over their luncheons.

It might almost seem to a casual observer that these were the guests of some hotel, surrounded as they are by the growing plants, the big inviting chairs, and warm reds and greens used in decorating. Every detail of the promenade and sun parlor has been perfectly planned, and it is only happy faces that look up to greet the stranger.

It is not a hotel, but the roof of one of the largest and best department stores of New York City, and the activities that are carried on are part of the welfare work that is being done among the employees.

Downstairs the aisles are crowded with holiday shoppers. Men and women hurry about the store eager to make their purchases. They are shopping early, but it is still a rush time for the people who work in the department store. It is the time of year when tired faces are to be expected, and that is why, even if they are working hard, the employees of this store are able to be cheerful and rested—a thing that is generally supposed to be an impossibility in the department stores all during the month of December.

And the reason for this is that in this store the welfare work starts as soon as a man or girl puts in an application to work under its management. Each applicant is given a

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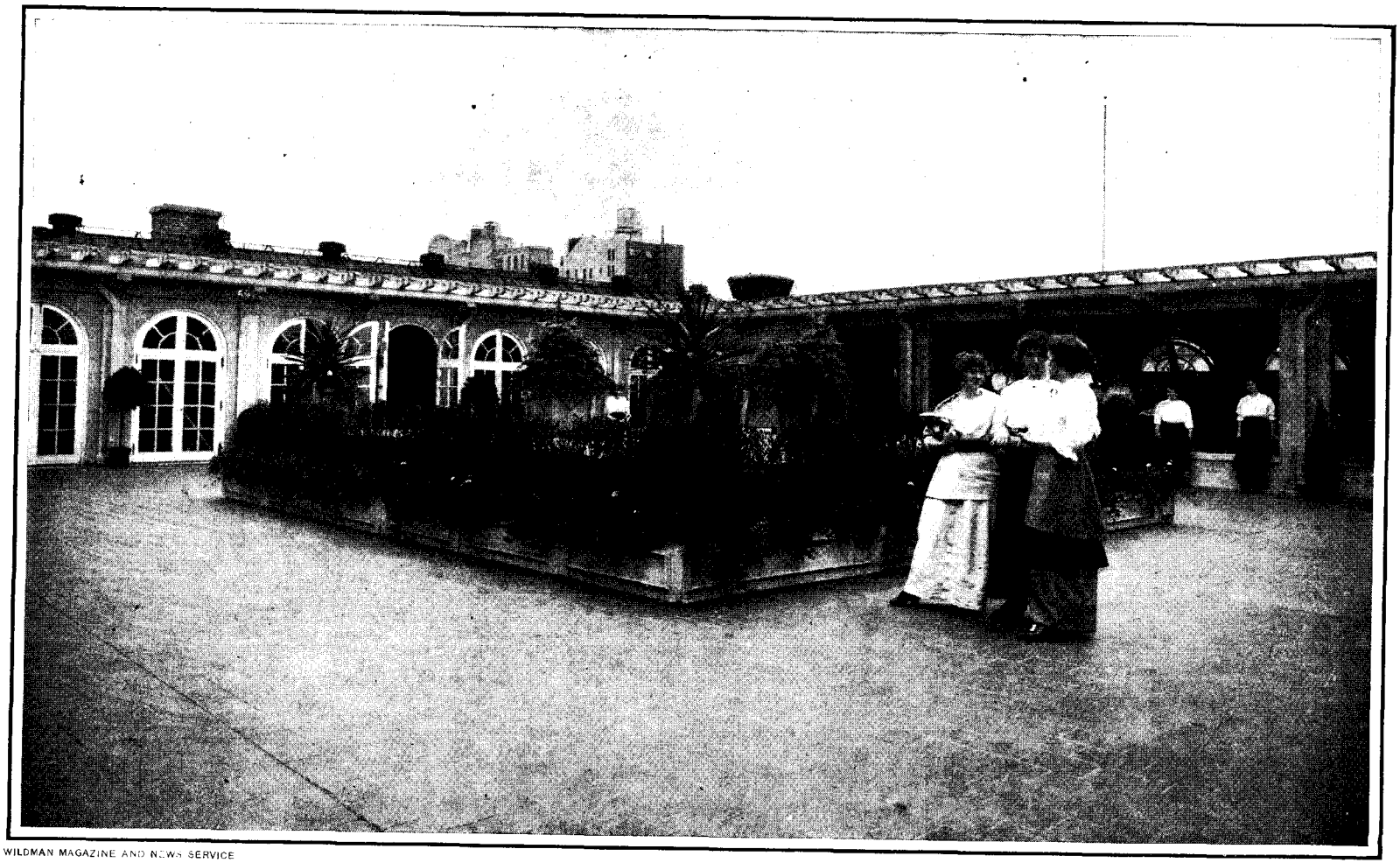

WILDMAN MAGAZINE AND NEWS SERVICE

THE ROOF GARDEN—"IT MIGHT ALMOST SEEM THAT THESE WERE THE GUESTS OF SOME HOTEL"

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WILDMAN MAGAZINE AND NEWS SERVICE

IN THE GYMNASIUM—A FEW MINUTES' "SETTING UP" DRILL GIVES RENEWED VIGOR TO TIRED MUSCLES

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careful examination by the house physician, and unless the applicant is in a proper condition to work, he or she is not taken on to the staff. There is no engaging a girl who, because she will have to be on her feet for a great many hours a day, will in a few months' time become so ill that she will be an invalid. Such a girl is told kindly that she is not strong enough, and that employment in this type of work would be unsatisfactory both for her and for the store.

When an applicant is found to be physically fit, the firm immediately sets to work to see that he or she stays in that condition.

The first step towards health and happiness is a short, kindly lesson in hygiene. There is no inclination to pry into the personal affairs of the girls, but they are given a few hints that will help them not only in their business, but in their home life as well. They are told the value of a smile, how it will help to soothe an angry customer; that their hair must be neatly done, and that their hands and nails must be kept immaculate. In summer the girls are allowed to wear white shirt-waists; but the rest of the year black is prescribed, with touches of white at the throat and wrists.

It is during the lunch hour that most of the activities of the welfare work are carried on. There are separate lunch-rooms on the roof for the employees, one for the women and girls, another for the men and boys. The boys and girls employed as messengers about the building are furnished with a plate of soup, bread and butter, and a big glass of milk for five cents.

At the entrance of the dining-rooms for the older people are boards on which are printed the day's menu. The meal is served on the cafeteria plan, the diners going to the counter and carrying their food to one of the tables after their order has been filled. The food is of the very best, and the quantity given is enough for any normal appetite. The serving is generous, and the large glass of milk, the very best which is obtainable for four cents, is a sample of the effort made to be sure that no employee goes without a sustaining meal.

The following is one day's menu, with the prices charged:

Boiled mutton and caper sauce with potato	14c.
String beans	5c.
Roast beef and potatoes	14c.
Brown Betty	5c.
Ice cream	5c.
Cake	5c.
Potatoes	2c.
Bread and butter	1c.
Vegetable soup	5c.
Milk	4c.
Tea	5c.
Coffee	5c.

After the meal is over the girls have a choice of several different diversions. They can slip on their coats and go for a walk in the crisp air, or, if they prefer indoor exercise, they are at liberty to romp in the big, well-equipped gymnasium. If a girl is particularly tired, one part of the solarium is fitted as a silence room and she can lean back in a comfortable chair and take a nap until it is time to go downstairs and commence work. The part of the solarium not taken for a silence room is used much the same as the parlor of any hotel. The girls gather there and chat about their home life, plan parties, or, if they so prefer, read or embroider.

Adjoining the solarium is a room for the exclusive use of the men employees, and also a playground for their use. The playground is the delight of the younger men and boys, for here they may give vent to their good spirits to the fullest extent, and no one will stop their fun.

The gymnasium, with adjacent shower-baths, is to the employees perhaps the most attractive part of the welfare work. It is a very large room, lighted from the top, and fully equipped. Even the women and girls take delight in working the many health-giving appliances. There are mechanical horse and camel machines, also vibrating, reclining, and rowing machines. There are dumb-bells, wands, horizontal bars, basket-ball—in fact, almost every appliance that can be found in any modern gymnasium. The gymnasium is under the supervision of experienced instructors, who work to make the employees of the building physically perfect. A girl can go into the gymnasium and after a few minutes' "setting up" drill will feel rested and capable of attending to the wants of the most exacting Christmas shopper. The instructors teach the girls how to relieve their tired muscles, and how to walk and stand so that they rest themselves while at their work. Another attractive part of the gymnasium is the music. There are a piano and a phonograph—and both are enjoyed to the fullest extent.

It is remarkable what can be accomplished in an hour. Men or girls, thoroughly tired from the morning's work, come up to the

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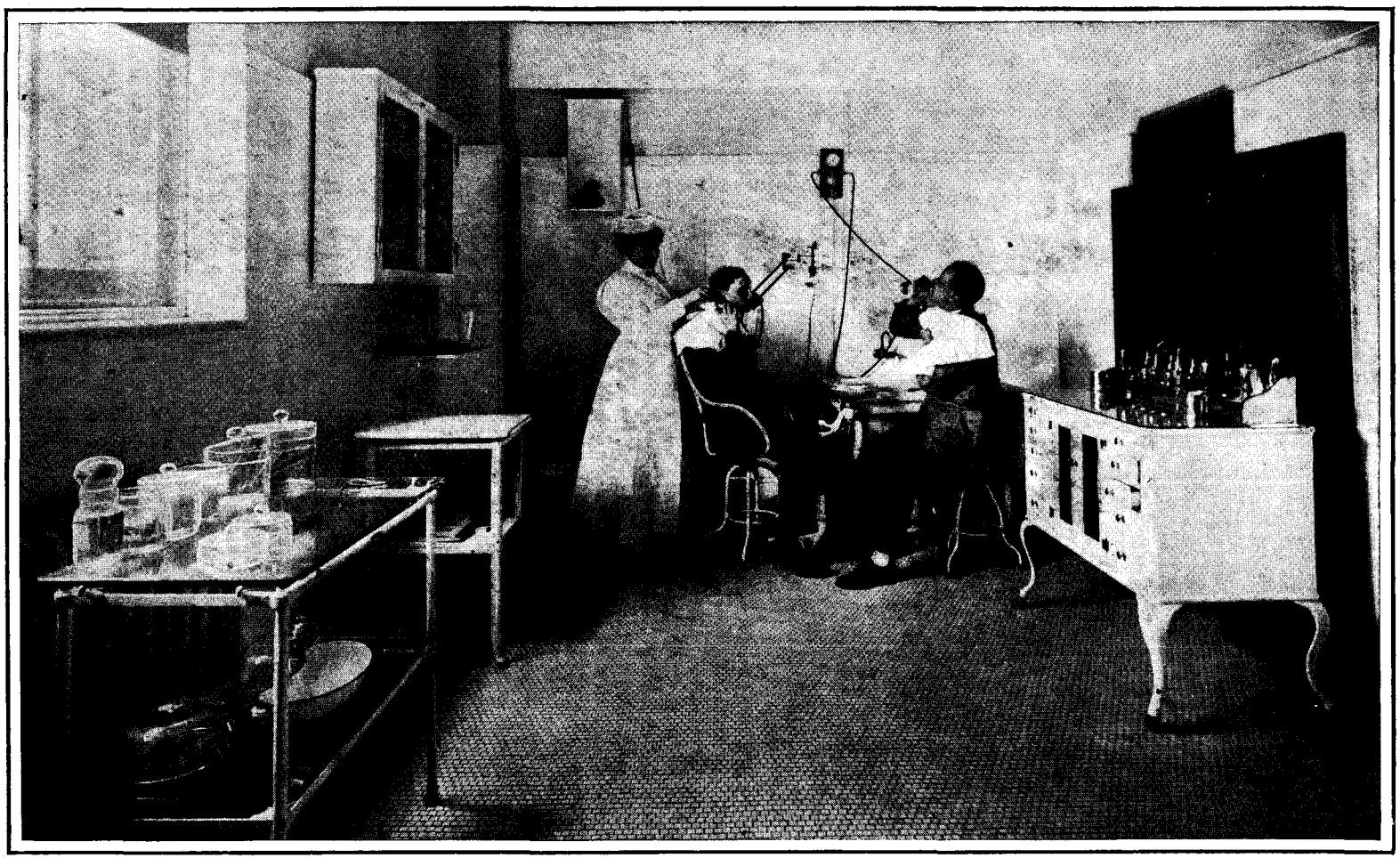

WILDMAN MAGAZINE AND NEWS SERVICE

PATIENTS UNDER TREATMENT IN THE STORE'S EYE, EAR, AND NOSE HOSPITAL

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eleventh floor at twelve o'clock. After a hearty meal, a few minutes of light exercise in the gymnasium, then the remainder of the time spent in resting, they can return to their places in the store refreshed and ready to work.

The management has not by any means restricted its activities in behalf of the employees to the activities on the roof that are carried on during the lunch hour. Two of the greatest helps are immediately at the counters where the girls work. There are heavy cork linoleum floor coverings. The floor covering enables the girls to stand hours without injuring their feet.

If by any chance the press of work should make a girl ill, she is cared for at once in the hospital—also on the roof of the building. This hospital is fully equipped, and under the direction of a doctor and trained nurses who are always on duty. The doctor examines the patients and, if necessary, puts them to bed in one of the two perfectly equipped wards. Here they are taken care of for the day.

The doctor is in his office almost all day, and an employee can always have the time to consult him. Besides the hospital there are a dentist, a chiropodist, and an eye, ear, and throat specialist, each doctor trained in his profession, and each ready to give treatments at any time when they are necessary.

In addition to this work done in the store the firm has an outdoor relief system.

All employees must take at least a two weeks' vacation, and if they can afford to take more they are at liberty to do so, though they must pay for the extra time themselves. The Vacation Savings Fund is actively at work among the girls, and the firm encourages every girl to be a member of this fund. In this way they save their money, so that when they do have an opportunity to get away from the city and rest they can go. There is also a sick benefit to which a girl may contribute if she sees fit, giving twenty-five or fifty cents a week, and receiving during an illness ten dollars a week.

The girls all have individual lockers which have open ventilation.

To keep up this welfare work costs hundreds of dollars. However, the firm's members have found that through welfare they arrive at efficiency. By making it their business to see that their employees are both happy and healthful they get the most from them. In times such as the rush that comes when people are buying their Christmas presents they know that their people are physically able to respond to the call.

Twenty years ago the men and women who worked behind the counters were overworked, and when they became ill there was nothing for them to do but to leave their positions and try to find employment which would enable them to fight their way back to health. This condition was true throughout the country. At Christmas time the girls and men worked from eight in the morning till ten and eleven at night, and in many places they were allowed only half an hour for luncheon.

These conditions went on until such bodies as the Consumers' League began to use their influence to better the lives of the girls. The first step was early closing. The women throughout the country were appealed to and asked not to shop late, and heads of firms were notified that they need not expect patronage unless they cared for their help. The reform, particularly in New York, has been very great, although there is still much to be accomplished. The slogan, "Do your Christmas shopping early," was adopted and the little sentence did its work to help the people in the shops. The reforms did not stop here. The department-store people were beginning to see that if they enabled their employees to be well and happy they would benefit by the work accomplished. The different firms began establishing lunch-rooms, where it was possible to get a good meal for fifteen or twenty cents—and it is a good meal—well cooked, the very best food. From the menu given as an example a girl can get a meal for nineteen or twenty cents that will be tasty and nourishing. Such a meal is possible because everything is bought in bulk and planned for by a trained dietitian. What the girl pays for is the actual cost of placing the food before her. The heads of big businesses that employ large numbers of people cannot afford to pay high salaries, but they can give their employees many luxuries which they could not enjoy unless they were so provided. And the result is inevitable. Turn about is always fair play, and the workers do not mind working a few hours extra, or the rushes that come at certain periods of the year, when they know that everything is being done to make them happy. The department stores are getting efficient workers—strong, able men and women—anxious to do their share.

It is a universal movement—efficiency through keeping the Golden Rule as the main maxim of business.

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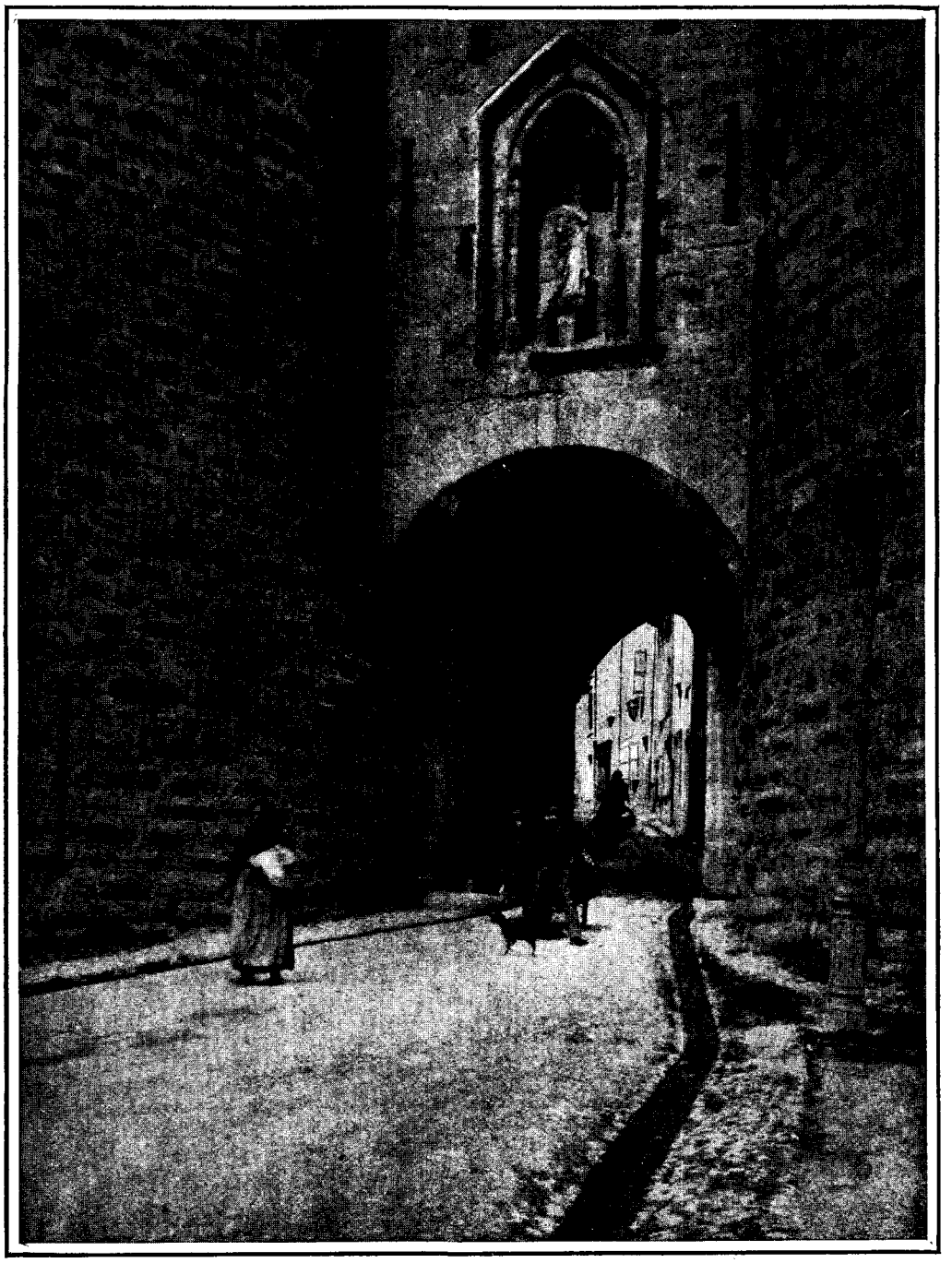

THE GATEWAY OF
THE "OLD CITY"

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CAPTURING CARCASSONNE

BY HENRY HOYT MOORE

WITH PHOTOGRAPHS BY THE AUTHOR

IT is a long time since Gustave Nadaud published his famous poem about the old peasant who yearned to see the fair city of Carcassonne; and for an almost equal length of time I had longed to follow in that peasant's footsteps, with, I hoped, a greater measure of success than he had in attaining the goal. It will be remembered that in the poem the pilgrim never "arrived;" and the difficulties that my little party encountered in breaching the walls of the old town made me at one time fear that our fate was to be similar to that of Nadaud's pathetic hero. His attempt to reach his Mecca I will here recall to the reader in two stanzas of a familiar translation:

"How old I am! I'm eighty years!
I've worked both hard and long
Yet, patient as my life has been,
One dearest sight I have not seen,—
It seems almost a wrong.
A dream I had when life was new.
Alas, our dreams! they come not true!
I thought to see fair Carcassonne,
That lovely city—Carcassonne!

One sees it dimly from the height,
Beyond the mountains blue.
Fain would I walk five weary leagues—
I do not mind the road's fatigues—
Through morn and evening's dew.
But bitter frost would fall at night,
And on the grapes—that yellow blight!
I could not go to Carcassonne;
I never went to Carcassonne."

The fame of Carcassonne as celebrated in this poem, and as the best-preserved of the ancient walled towns of France, had lured us to the Midi from that city of perfect hotels, Paris; and we had no hesitation in taking from Toulouse a train that was due to arrive in Carcassonne at midnight, assuming that we should have no more trouble in securing accommodations at that hour in Carcassonne than in Paris itself. For was not the hotel in the "Old City" starred in Baedeker? And did not that mean everywhere a first-class hostelry that would offer unstinted hospitality at all hours to the wayfarer? So, with guileless confidence in our reception, one night last summer we stepped from the Toulouse express at midnight to the platform of the modest railway station at Carcassonne. We proceeded to hail a cab. That is, we asked a porter who was keeping a midnight vigil on the platform whether he could find a conveyance for us. He disappeared for a moment, and came back accompanied by an ancient vehicle drawn by a mediæval-looking beast that was being urged on by a driver of doubtful antecedents and dubious prospects. Oh, yes, he would take us to the Old City; but it was far away and he would want double fare for the drive. Was the hotel open? Oh, but yes; *certainement, monsieur!* So into the old carryall we got, and soon were rattling over the stony and somewhat uninteresting streets of the New Town. We passed a pleasant park, crossed a river, and went on and on.

It was now nearly an hour after midnight, but the full moon lent a glory to the unfamiliar landscape. The village streets were absolutely deserted. The houses were getting farther apart. We discerned huge black towering walls in the distance. They drew nearer. We approached a dark, silent gateway in the portentous walls. One almost fancied that we were to hear the cry, "Up, drawbridge, up!" followed by the plunge of our besieging party into the black waters of a fathomless moat. But we really heard nothing but the clatter of our horse's hoofs over an uneven, stony pavement. After a moment's pause we advanced through the ponderous gate, which opened into a vast tower, and found ourselves in a dark, narrow, winding street, lighted here and there by a feebly glimmering lamp. Grim, silent houses, with heavy wooden shutters, were on either side, and now and then a huge turret was outlined blackly against the moonlit sky. Finally our Jehu drew up before a high, iron-barred wooden gate that let into a massive wall which inclosed a three-story building. The hotel! But there was not a light in any of its windows. Cabby hallooed the house in hoarse southern accents. At last an upper window opened and a head appeared. "*C'est complet!*" it called, shortly. "All full?" How could that be, in this far-away place? And wasn't there even a cot bed for tired travelers, if indeed the rooms were all taken? I jumped out of the cab and yelled to the custodian peering from his window, telling him, in bad French and vigorous English, who we were, what we wanted, and what we thought

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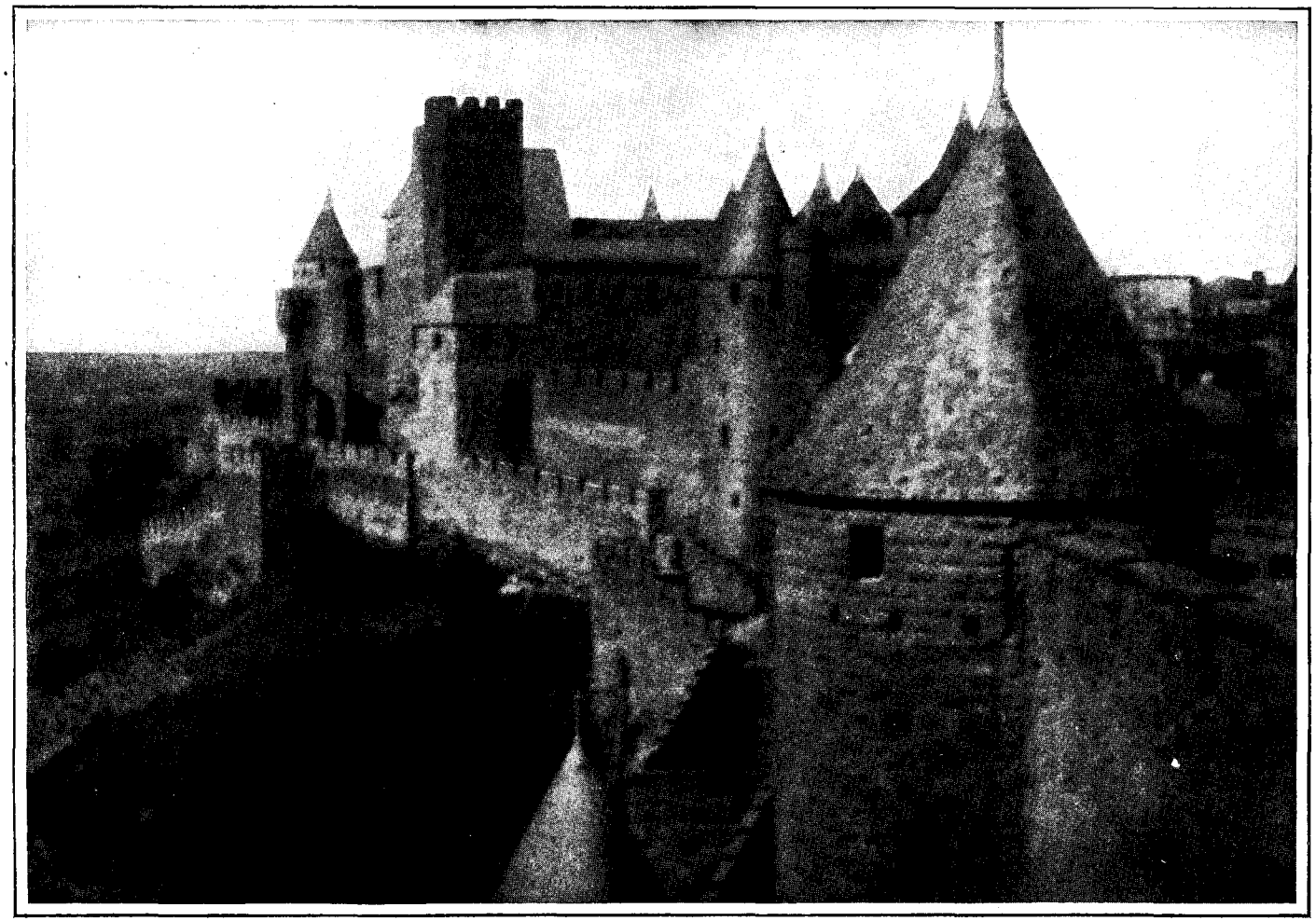

THE SARACEN TOWER AS SEEN FROM THE TOWER OF THE INQUISITION (IN THE FOREGROUND)

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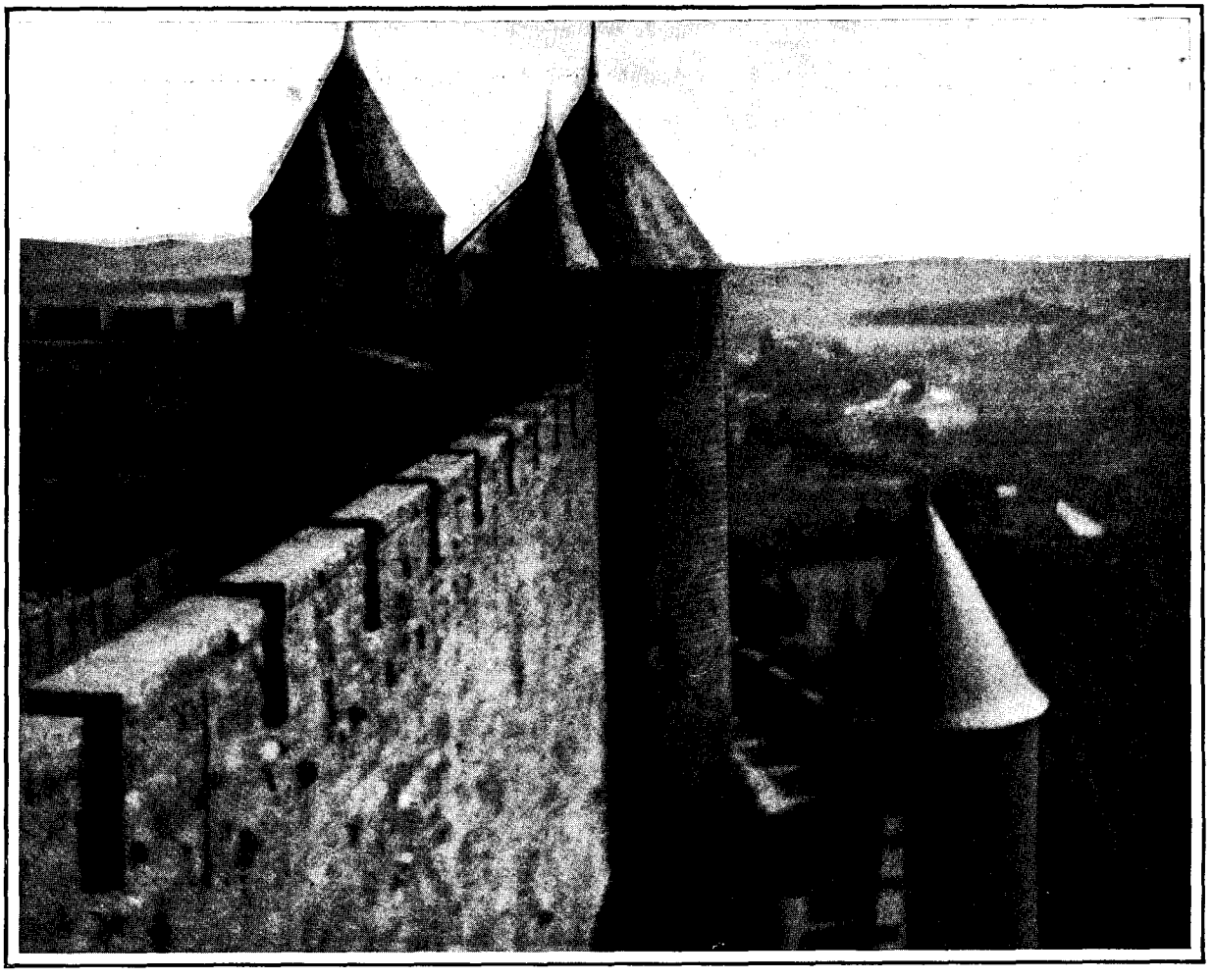

THE SOUTHWESTERN ANGLE, WITH A VIEW OF THE SURROUNDING PLAIN

"WALLS LIKE THOSE OF BABYLON"

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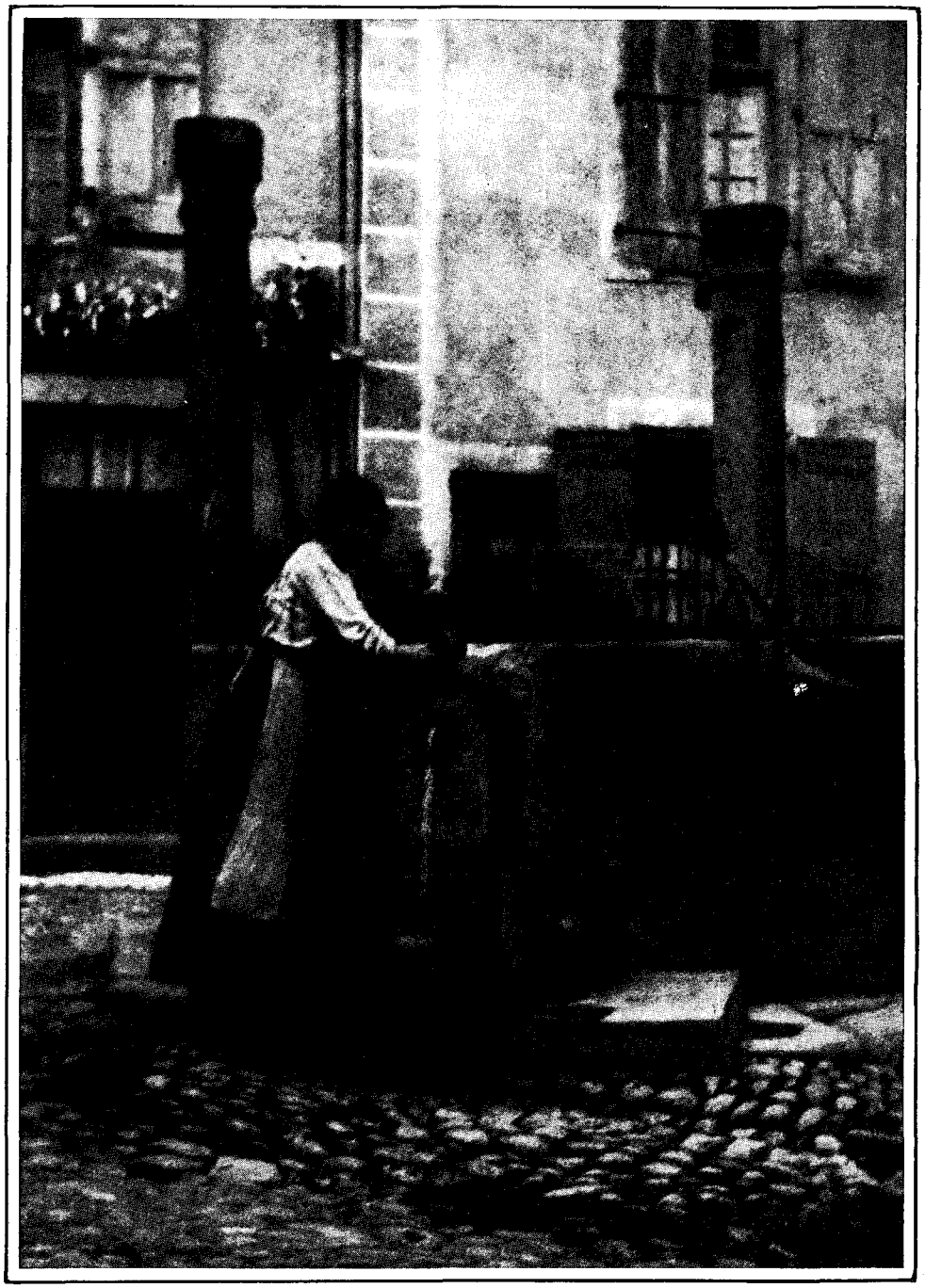

AT THE OLD WELL
WITHIN THE FORTRESS

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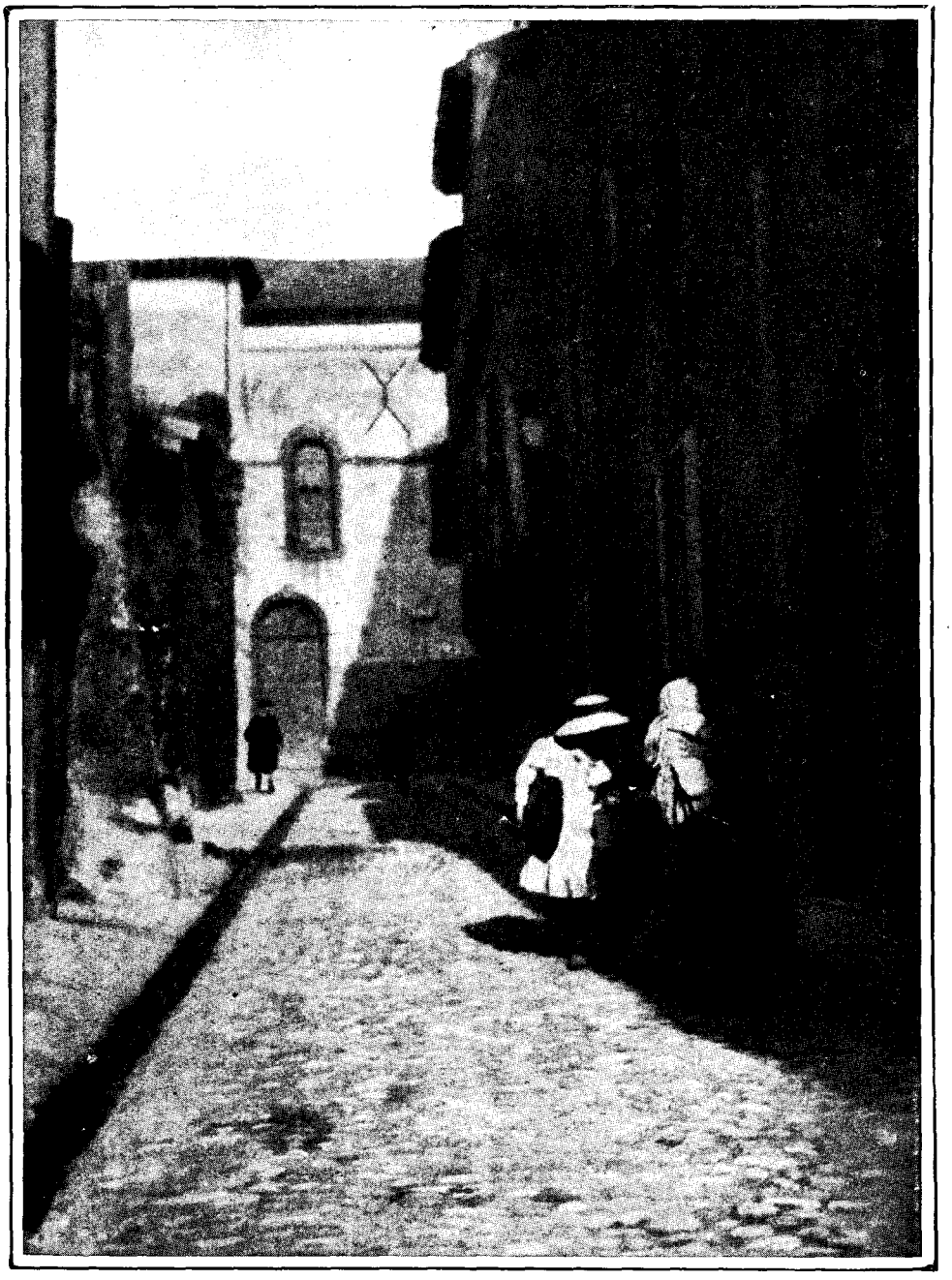

SOME OF CARCASSONNE'S CHILDREN

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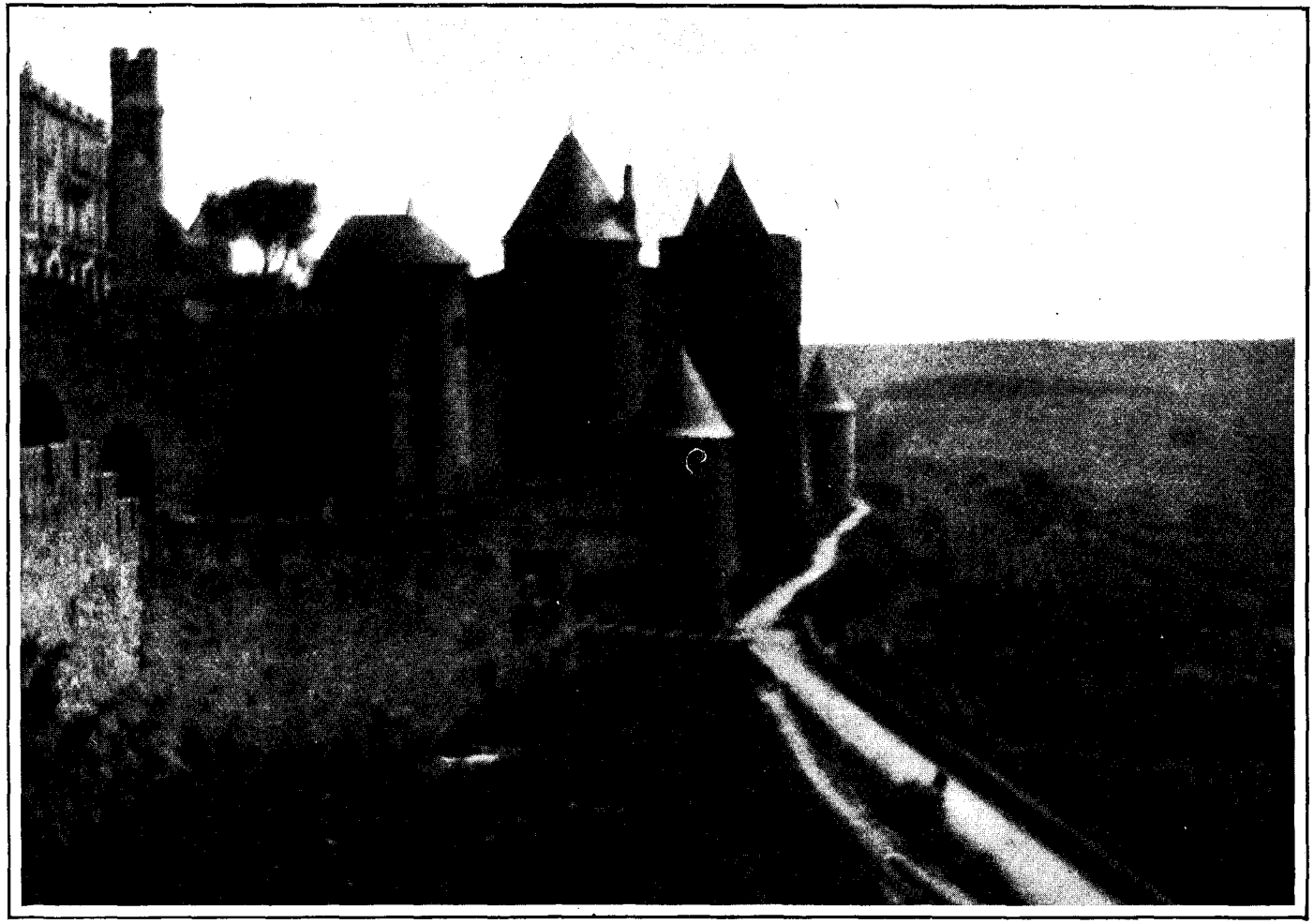

AT THE UPPER LEFT-HAND CORNER IS THE HOTEL WHICH SUCCESSFULLY WITHSTOOD THE ATTACK BY NIGHT

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of him, of his hotel, and of Carcassonne. No use! After a moment the window was shut inexorably. Outside the stout gate we were, and there we were to remain. History had repeated itself, and, as in the old days, Carcassonne had successfully resisted an invader's attack.

We raised the siege, and with indignation in our hearts and hot protests on our lips commanded a retreat and a search for quarters in the New Town. Suffice it to say that, after several unsuccessful ventures, we finally secured fair accommodations at a respectable hotel near the station. We dismissed our driver, believing that he knew all the time that the hotel at the Old City would be closed, but that he was willing to drive us there and back for the sake of getting a profitable customer.

The next morning, with strong reinforcements in the shape of a delicious breakfast of hot chocolate and the crisp, dainty rolls that one gets nowhere but in France, we renewed the attack. In the fresh morning air the Old City, as we rode out towards it, seemed less formidable and vastly more human than in the darkness. High on the hills beyond the Aude, it looked to be indeed a mighty mediæval fortress, with massive encircling walls and countless lofty towers. As we approached it, memories of a long line of besiegers came to us—Romans, Visigoths, Saracens, and last, not least, ourselves in our unsuccessful assault of the preceding night.

Arrived at the hotel within the walls, we summoned the general in command and demanded unconditional surrender. In other words, we asked for the landlord and sternly inquired the reason for his inhospitable treatment. We flourished our weapons in the shape of personal cards, letters of introduction, and Baedeker with his stars, and threatened to denounce Carcassonne to the great maker of guide-books. The unconditional surrender, to our great satisfaction, followed. The courteous Frenchman was profuse in his apologies. He explained that lately certain undesirable citizens from the New Town had acquired the habit of coming to his place late at night, and bade fair to spoil the reputation of his respectable house, so that he had closed the hotel to late visitors. He was extremely mortified to think that travelers from America should have been turned away; and to make amends he put the very best room in the hotel at our disposal, at a merely nominal charge. In fact, the landlord showed himself to be such a decent fellow that, while we rejoiced that we had now taken Carcassonne, we acknowledged that he in turn had captured our hearts.

Then followed a leisurely tour of examination of our spoils of war. Carcassonne is certainly a wonderful example of the art of the restorer. Our only feeling of disappointment in wandering about this splendid mediæval fortress was that it is not as ruinous as a place of its age should naturally be, but that everything is so well kept up. We found ourselves wishing that we had seen the town before the days of Viollet-le-Duc, who was employed by the French Government to rebuild and restore the crumbling walls and the falling towers. Nevertheless, a walk around the ramparts of the ancient fortress proved extremely interesting. Here stood the archers, safely protected within these embrasures, and let off their shafts at the embattled hosts on the plain below; or, concealing themselves within this huge tower, they waited for the foe to come to close quarters and then dropped buckets of melted lead on their helmets or overwhelmed them with huge stones which they let fall through convenient oubliettes. Here were vast, gloomy dungeons for unhappy prisoners. Here, at the eastern end, was the weakest point in the fortifications, owing to the slope of the land, and these unusually massive towers defended it. Here were the remains of a wall built by the Romans; there was a tower erected by the Saracens; and through this gate entered Simon de Montfort, after the city had been taken by treachery—the only way, the historians say, in which the great fortress ever was taken.

Carcassonne, in its glorious days, was not merely a stronghold, but a living-place for some thousands of people. Even now, though the fortress aspect is predominant, its population numbers several hundreds and gives an air of livableness to the houses that hide beneath the great protecting walls.

"Are there any houses to rent in Carcassonne?" we asked the attentive guide who conducted us over the fortress—for one must have a guide here as a pilot; the lofty walls and towers are dangerous in places, unless one has a sure foot and a steady head.

"Oh, yes, there are many, for the people are growing fewer year by year," was the answer. A delightful little green-embowered house was pointed out to us as a place which we might find it worth while to

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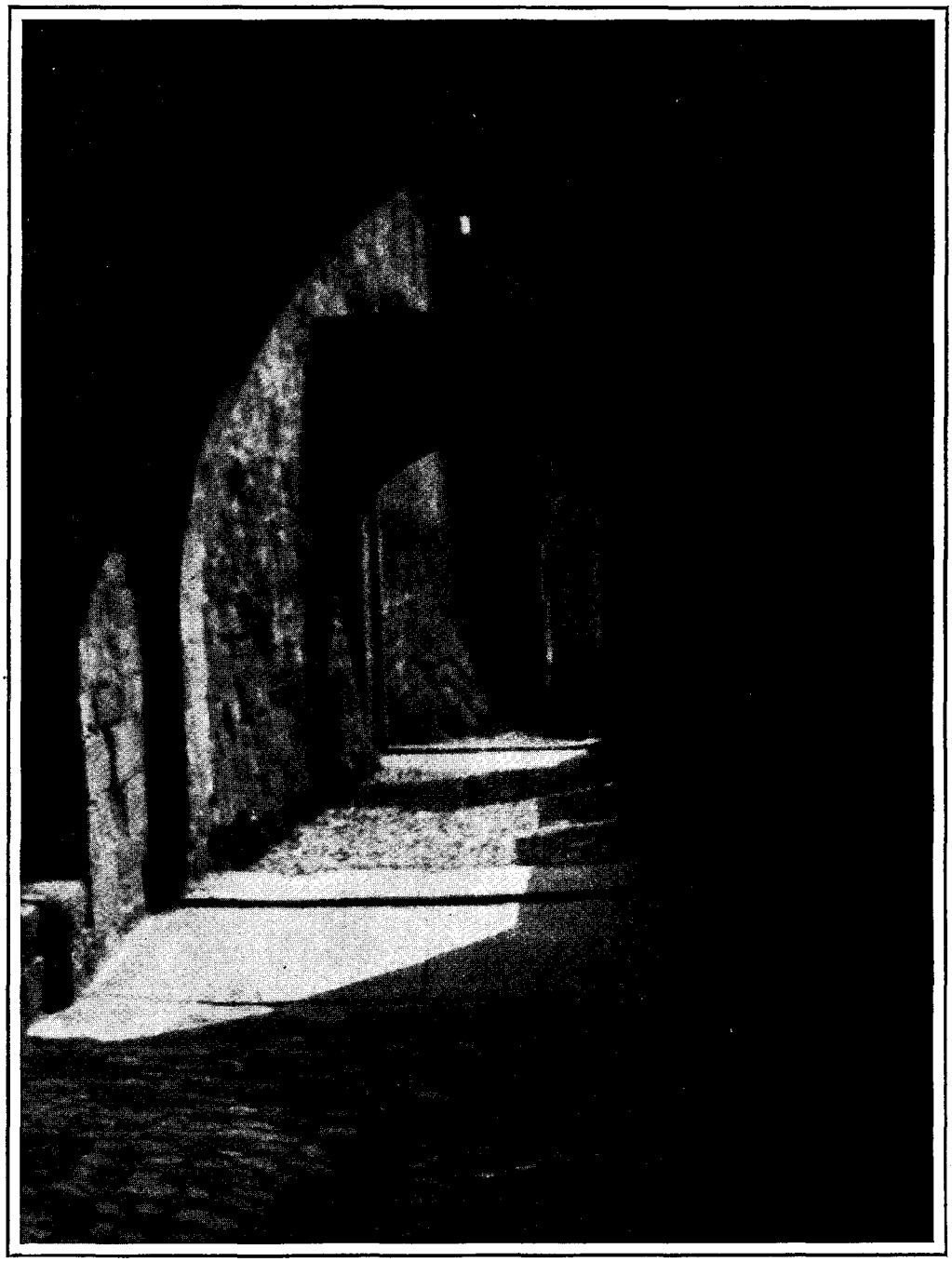

BETWEEN THE INNER
AND OUTER DEFENSES

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examine. After descending from the walls and inquiring our way through various winding streets we discovered this little house, and found it charmingly situated in a garden vivid with fig trees and other somewhat tropical vegetation. The owner had lost his wife and desired to leave fair Carcassonne; and he would be glad to rent the place, or preferably to sell it for a modest price.

Carcassonne, too, has a fine church within its walls. As we moved reverently through its dim interior with its massive pillars and fine stained-glass windows, our thoughts went back to the great days of cathedral-building, and the inquiry involuntarily suggested itself, "Why do they not build churches in America like this? In our 'home town' of a million inhabitants there is not a single church that is as impressive as this majestic building here in this far-away mediæval town in old France. Why do we put up tasteless churches that express nothing but our deterioration from the standards of the old-time builders?" The question remained unanswered.

Near the church is a great open-air auditorium, an amphitheater which of late years has been used from time to time for the presentation of dramas that call for a great historic setting. Here, a year ago, our guide proudly informed us, "Hamlet" had been acted by a company that included some of the greatest French actors. There were many distinguished visitors in Carcassonne at that time. A brilliant occasion such as this must have given to the ancient city something of that splendor of outward show, that suggestion of pomp and pageantry, which distinguished it in the old days, when its grim fortifications were enlivened with the glowing colors and gay processions of the age of chivalry. It was this aspect of the place that must have been uppermost in the minds of the simple dwellers in the surrounding country; it was the gayety and glory and throbbing life of Carcassonne that lured the old peasant of Nadaud's poem to the goal that he never reached, but that we finally attained after our adventurous prelude. The peasant's fate, with the sentiment of the poem as a whole, I herewith detail, to the reader who may be unfamiliar with it, in this somewhat free rendering:

I'm aging fast: threescore I count;
  My life to work has all been given;
I never yet have climbed the mount
  That gives man's eyes a glimpse of heaven.
I feel that on this earthly sphere
  Our fondest hopes are doomed to die.
The reason why is none too clear:—
  For Carcassonne I still must sigh.

That town so fair is just behind
  The azure mountains' outlines clear.
So near it seems, so far I find—
  For five long leagues it lies from here.
These five long leagues I fain must walk,
  For purple fruit our vines have none.
Had golden grain but topped the stalk,
  I now could ride to Carcassonne!

Its streets, they say, are every day
  As bright as saints' days are for us;
The folk are clad in costumes gay
  Of cloth too dear by far for us.
The castle grand completes the view,
  With walls like ancient Babylon.
The bishop's there, and generals two—
  Oh, let me see fair Carcassonne!

The priest speaks well. He says, "Nay, nay,
  You must not leave the beaten path;
Ambition should not have its way.
  Stay, son, nor tempt God's holy wrath!"
But ah! could I have now two days,
  At autumn's end, to gaze upon
That city fair, e'en God would praise
  His servant's quest of Carcassonne.

O God! O Virgin blest! O Christ!
  O shrive me if my prayer offend!
'Tis but a poor heart's pleading whilst
  His peasant life draws near its end.
For hear! My wife, my son Aignan,
  Have seen the city of Narbonne;
My grandson's been to Perpignan:
  Then why not I to Carcassonne?
. . . . . .
So prayed this peasant old and sad.
  A wandering bard, with eager face,
O'erheard, and cried, "My friend, be glad!
  Together we will seek this place."
They went, but never gained their goal:
  For when the quest was half-way won,
The old man died; that wistful soul
  Ne'er saw the sights of Carcassonne.

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REMINISCENCES[1]

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

CHAPTER XIV

BEGINNING AGAIN

THERE is a legend that Hendrik Hudson, sailing up the river which now bears his name, came, about forty miles from its mouth, to what he supposed to be the end of this arm of the sea. Standing on the bow of a modern steamboat, the unaccustomed traveler will readily reach a like conclusion. His way appears to be stopped by a range of hills through which he can discern no gateway until he comes to within perhaps a third of a mile of them. Then he sees that the river up which he had been sailing in a northerly direction turns at a right angle, and, following it, his steamer moves westward for a couple of miles or so, and then, turning again at right angles, resumes its northerly course. He is now in the Highlands of the Hudson. The hills rise from the water's edge, sometimes with a narrow plateau between their base and the tidewater, sometimes absolutely precipitately, from one thousand to fifteen hundred feet in height. Through this range nature has made a pathway for the river to the ocean. Nature's engineering feats have no superior in modern engineering. I wish that I knew enough of geology to understand how she built this canal through this mountain barrier. As I am writing these lines New York is just completing the aqueduct which is to bring water from the Catskills to New York City. That aqueduct crosses the Hudson River at the northern edge of these Highlands. The engineers had to go down one thousand feet to get at the bottom of the river, feel their way through a great mass of rock and gravel, and then go still farther down in order to carry their aqueduct through the solid rock bottom. It is twenty-five hundred feet from the bottom of the river valley to the top of the environing hills.

These Highlands of the Hudson, beautiful for scenery, are also rich in historic and literary associations. In entering and traveling through them, you pass through Haverstraw Bay, where the Vulture lay anchored, on which Benedict Arnold took his flight when his treachery was discovered; Anthony's Nose, where the chain was stretched across the Hudson River to prevent the passage of the British fleet, and close by is the iron mine, still worked, which furnished part of the metal for the chain; the house where Arnold was when he learned that his treachery had been discovered and from which he slipped quietly away from his unsuspecting company; the beautiful plateau at West Point which George Washington selected with rare foresight for the Military Academy of the Nation; Cro'-Nest, the scene of the frolics of the now almost forgotten "Culprit Fay;" Butter Hill, an English corruption of the Dutch Bötha Berg, but three-quarters of a century ago rechristened by N. P. Willis Storm King, the name which it still bears. Here the steamer emerges again into the open country, with the city of Newburgh five miles in the distance on the west bank. The Highlands, which end as abruptly as they began, constitute a penetrated wall of rock fifteen or twenty miles in breadth from the southern to the northern gateway, and one thousand to fifteen hundred feet in height. In passing through this wall the steamer has four times turned at a right angle. Thus this wall of rock furnishes a substantial barrier to the sea fogs and sea air of the coast. Spring on the southern slope of this line of hills is fully a week in advance of spring on the northern slope.

At the northern gateway of these Highlands, midway between West Point and Newburgh, is situated the village of Cornwall, on the west bank of the river. When in 1869 we made it our home, it was a quiet rural village, reached from New York in the summer by steamer, a three hours' sail, in winter by a branch of the Erie Railway three miles and a half to the west of us. Its docks furnished conveniences for shipping milk and small fruits in the summer; there were so many summer visitors in the homes and so many small boarding-houses in and near the village that some one said, "Everybody in Cornwall takes boarders, some with pay and some without;" and it contained a factory which was the headquarters of a successful builder whose contracts took him into New

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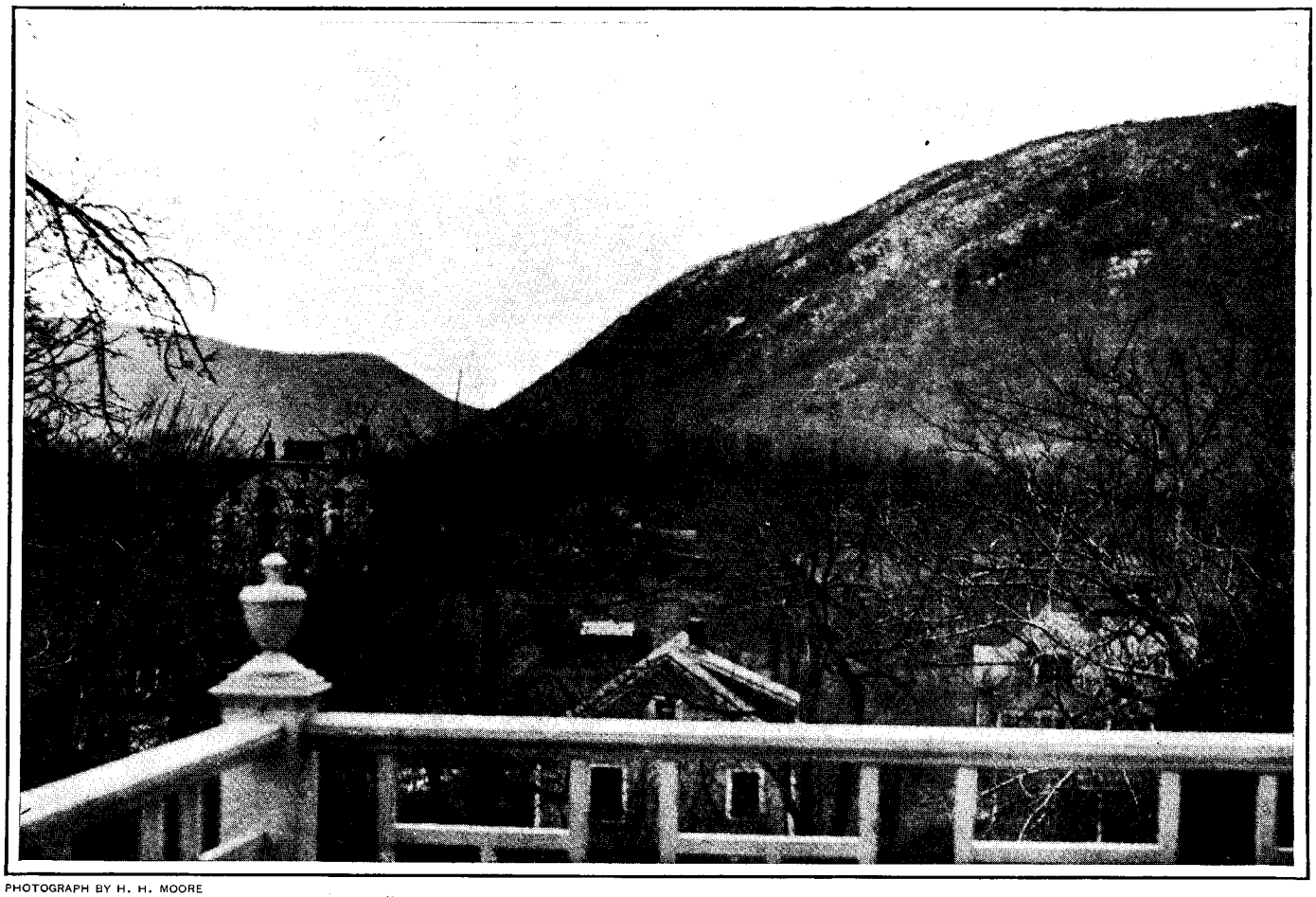

PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

"THE NORTHERN GATEWAY TO THESE HIGHLANDS"

The mountain to the right is Storm King. The mountain to the left is on the other side of the Hudson River. The house to the left was once the home of the popular novelist E. P. Roe This view is looking east from Dr Abbott's house. See preceding page

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Jersey on the one side and Massachusetts on the other. The opening of the West Shore Railroad in 1883 made it almost as easy to reach the higher altitudes and cooler atmosphere of the Catskills as it had been to reach Cornwall, and the boarding-houses have now disappeared. But a prosperous carpet mill has been established by English capital which largely employs English working people, and the hills have been taken for summer residences by a considerable colony. So the village, or, to speak accurately, the two villages—for Cornwall is a Siamese twin—has more than double the population it had when I made it my home. What has added to its prosperity is the fact that we have succeeded under local option in keeping the saloon out of the town for over twenty years past.

My wife took full advantage of the country life and made full use of the fresh-air cure for tuberculosis. She lived out of doors, defied draughts, ran out bareheaded in all weathers; we got some hens and she raised chickens; we prepared a garden bed and she raised flowers; we had no sleeping-porches—they were unknown—but she always slept with the windows open. The fresh-air cure was unknown, at least to us; it was several years before Dr. Trudeau went to the Adirondacks and fifteen years before he founded the sanitarium there for consumptive patients. Ten years before this time the ordinary treatment for consumptives was to shut them up in a close room, keep them warm, avoid draughts, and especially shun night air. My wife was thus something of a pioneer, at first against my anxious protest. I do not think that she had any clear idea that her course was especially hygienic. But she had a great horror of invalidism and no horror of death, and was resolved to live largely while she did live. She had no fear of a short life, but dread of a contracted life. She had been from the day of our marriage the physician of the family; I had a good deal of faith in her hygienic judgment and none in my own, and I soon accepted her point of view, made no futile endeavor to make her conform to the rules of invalidism, and backed her up as well as I could in a course which seemed to others as well as to myself audacious. When an anxious friend persisted in cautioning her against her course, she finally replied that if he wished to bury her in a consumptive's grave he was going about it very directly; that she must live as wisely as she could, and, not disregarding certain principles which her doctor had laid down, must forget absolutely the possibilities which threatened her. This she did. The result could not have been better if she had been following the advice of a modern expert; she had no recurrence of the hemorrhages; her lung difficulty was entirely cured; and in her after life she was not even peculiarly subject to colds.

As I have said, my entire regular income was pledged for my rent, but I had some anchors to windward which made my course not quite so reckless financially as without them it would have been. Of these the one of most immediate importance was my connection with the house of Harper & Brothers. Its history affords a striking, though not unique, illustration of that growth of a great enterprise from a small beginning which was so characteristic of the nineteenth century, and especially of democratic America.

In 1817 Mr. James Harper and his brother John started in life as the proprietors of a small printing establishment in New York City. The two younger brothers, Wesley and Fletcher, followed, one after another, each of the four brothers contributing to the growing enterprise his own peculiar ability; for the remarkable success of the brothers was due primarily to what I think was the finest instance of team work I have ever known. None of the brothers worked for himself; all for the common welfare. How absolute was this community of interest is evidenced by the fact that for many years all the receipts were put into a common fund and each brother drew out what he needed for his personal use, and no accounts were kept between them. A gentleman once asked the senior member of the firm the not unnatural question, "Which one of you is the Harper and which are the brothers?" "Either one is the Harper and the rest are the brothers," was the reply. By a process of natural selection each brother took the place to which his temperament fitted him. John was a natural financier and acted as the treasurer; Wesley, a literary critic of excellent taste and judgment, had general charge of the book publications; Fletcher had an originating mind and created the three periodical publications of the house—the "Magazine," the "Weekly," and the "Bazar." James Harper exercised a peculiar kind of supervision over the mechanical work of the establishment. Many years before welfare work, so called, had been

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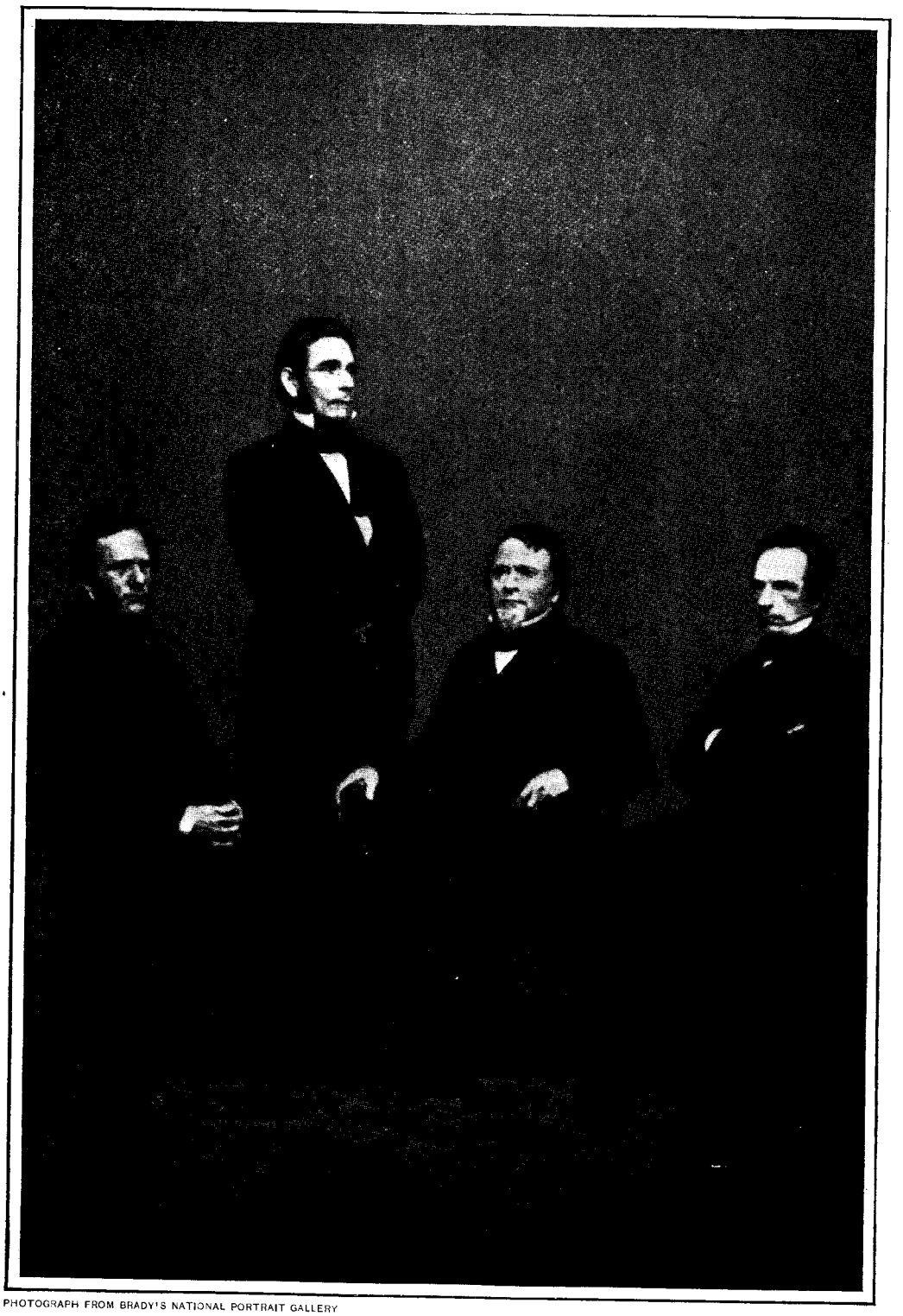

PHOTOGRAPH FROM BRADY'S NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY

FLETCHER JAMES JOHN WESLEY

THE HARPER BROTHERS

"A gentleman once asked the senior member of the firm the not unnatural question, 'Which one of you is the Harper and which are the brothers?' 'Either one is the Harper and the rest are the brothers,' was the reply." See pages 468-474

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invented he invented a system of his own. Every day, often twice a day, he visited the different departments to see, not only how the work was going on, but also how the workers were getting on. He knew every workingman and workingwoman, and often their families, and many were the stories treasured by employees of his personal kindness. One typical instance selected from notes which I made over forty years ago must here suffice. A woman in the bindery had trouble with her eyes: it interfered with her work and gave her no little anxiety concerning her future employment. She received an invitation to visit a sister and get without expense the rest she needed. But she was dependent on her daily wage for her livelihood. Mr. Harper learned the facts, not from her, for she made no complaint and preferred no request. He stopped one day, drew from her the fact of the invitation, offered her a vacation, and gave to her "a little book to read while you are gone." When she opened the book, she found the money for her journey between the leaves. It is not extraordinary that while I knew the house it never had experienced a strike.

The commingled caution and enterprise of these brothers is indicated by two contrasted incidents—the birth and what I may call the rebirth of the house. At first they did simply job printing. But work grew slack; the presses stood idle or were in danger of becoming idle. The brothers resolved to print a book on their own account, selected it with care, the eldest brother visited various booksellers for orders, agreed to print each seller's imprint on the copies printed for him, and, when they had received orders enough to insure them against loss, and not before, they made their first venture in publishing. From this small beginning the house grew until in 1853, the year I graduated from college, it had grown to be the largest and most complete book-manufacturing establishment in the world—occupying nine five-story buildings on Pearl Street and five on Cliff Street. Then in a day came death and resurrection. A plumber was at work in a room used for cleaning the rollers employed by the Adams presses. A pail of camphene (a purified oil of turpentine) stood near him. He thought it a pail of water, as extra precaution threw his lighted match into it, and in an instant the room was in a blaze. He barely escaped with his life. This was at ten in the morning. At five in the afternoon the entire establishment was a mass of smoking ruins. "What thing shall we save first?" cried a frightened employee. "Never mind about the things," was the reply, "save the lives." And they were all saved. In a day a million dollars' worth of property had gone up in smoke. The insurance was two hundred thousand dollars. While the firemen were still fighting the flames the four brothers held a consultation on the street and made their plans for resuming business, which they did the Monday morning following the fire. A composing-room was hired; matter for a new issue of the "Magazine" was collected, and a magazine was issued ten days after the date which it bore upon its title-page, January 1. Their only brief reference to the fire contained a defense of the unfortunate plumber. "The fire," they said, "originated, strangely enough, in the excessive carefulness of a plumber who had occasion to make some repairs in the pressroom."

William Borrow had just perfected his invention for the construction of iron beams, and the Harpers, after examination, adopted it in the construction of what was the first fire-proof building of any size in the city of New York. When I knew them, they were occupying this building, or rather these buildings, constructed on the old site. And here they edited, manufactured, published, and sold their three periodicals and their innumerable books. There was no private office—though one was provided afterward; the members of the firm occupied each his own desk in an open space looking out upon Pearl Street, separated from the warehouse only by a railing or fence. This indoor yard, if I may so call it, was a business and literary exchange open to all sorts of visitors on all sorts of business and on none at all. Those who had no errands or whose errands were quite useless outnumbered all the rest: beggars of all sorts, from the bloated whisky-drinker asking the price of a dram for charity's sake to the deserving applicant for some public charity or some poor, struggling church: men wanting work; women wanting editorial employment; would-be authors ambitious to write for the "Magazine" before they had learned the principles of grammar or the rules of spelling; unfledged poets anxious to make their experimental flights in the pages of the "Weekly;" beneficent inventors desirous, for purely benevolent motives, of securing the

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insertion of an illustrated article explanatory of their new labor-saving machine; authors not satisfied to leave their manuscript for examination but determined to explain it in person and to illustrate its value by reading a chapter or two; others whose manuscripts had been rejected and who came to demonstrate that the publishers did not know their business, and would hardly survive their error if they refused the invaluable work; old friends come in to say a word of greeting, forgetting themselves and staying by the half-hour, unconscious, since it was borne so easily, that the weight of this immense establishment rested on a few shoulders; acquaintances come in to stroll through the establishment, supposing, of course, that because their uncle knew Mr. Harper's second cousin Mr. Harper would leave his desk and stroll through the establishment with them; officious but kindly friends with innumerable suggestions and recommendations as to the proper editorial management of the periodicals; subscribers who did not know enough to go to the proper desk, put down their names, and leave, but must inform the head of the house of the honor they had conferred upon him by ordering the "Magazine." So they came and went, a ceaseless stream, with here and there a real business man, a canvasser to get advertisements, a salesman to sell ink or paper, an author to leave a manuscript, a friend to have a brief word of greeting and be off again; but among them all the men who realized that "time is money" were very few. One of these idle visitors, after spending half an hour in purposeless conversation with Mr. James Harper, put to him the question, "Your brother John, I see, attends to the finance, and your brother Wesley, I am told, to the authors, and your brother Fletcher appears to be always busy about the 'Magazine' and the weeklies; what is your department?" "I," replied Mr. Harper, leaning over and speaking as if very confidentially, but in a stage whisper quite audible to those in the immediate vicinity, "I take care of the bores." Exceedingly well he did it; his good humor was unfailing, his fund of anecdote exhaustless, his knowledge of men an intuition. No man was ever turned gruffly away from the establishment. But many men were adroitly turned away without even suspecting the fact. There was but one species of boredom which even the philosophy of Mr. James Harper could not sustain. He drew the line at listening to an author's reading of a manuscript, and rarely submitted to more than one page. Either some new acquaintance coming in interrupted him, or one of the young men summoned him away for a moment and he forgot to return, or a pressing engagement obliged him to excuse himself, or, if every other resource failed, a sentence in the manuscript reminded him of a story, and thereupon story followed story in quick succession until at length the disgusted author rolled up his manuscript and departed. In such case he generally reported Mr. Harper as a very garrulous old man.

Fletcher Harper was the member of this firm with whom I had most to do. I do not think he ever wrote a line for any one of the periodicals, and I do not know that he ever read manuscripts; but he not only had created the periodicals, he supervised and directed them. It was Fletcher Harper who foresaw that the developing education of women was creating a new reading constituency, and he organized "Harper's Bazar," the first of the women's periodicals of which there are now so many, and he selected as its editor Miss Mary Louise Booth, who continued in charge until her death. It was Fletcher Harper who perceived the opportunity for a weekly journal which should employ both pen and pencil in illustrating the history of the times, and made "Harper's Weekly" what it was called, a Journal of Civilization. He discovered or appropriated Thomas Nast, the greatest of American cartoonists—cartoonist but not caricaturist, for his humor did not need that quality of exaggeration which the modern cartoonist seems to find necessary in order to make his otherwise not too obvious jokes apparent. He called to his aid George William Curtis, who was not, as he was sometimes called, the editor of "Harper's Weekly," but who had given to him the editorial page to make what he would of it, and who made of it the most influential editorial page in America. The editing of the rest of the "Weekly" was in other hands. It was Fletcher Harper who saw that there are thousands who would like to read in a score of pages something of the science or travel or adventure contained in a volume of five hundred pages which only the select few will read. Largely for the purpose of giving in this way to American readers some acquaintance with the best material furnished by English current publications, he called into existence "Harper's Magazine."

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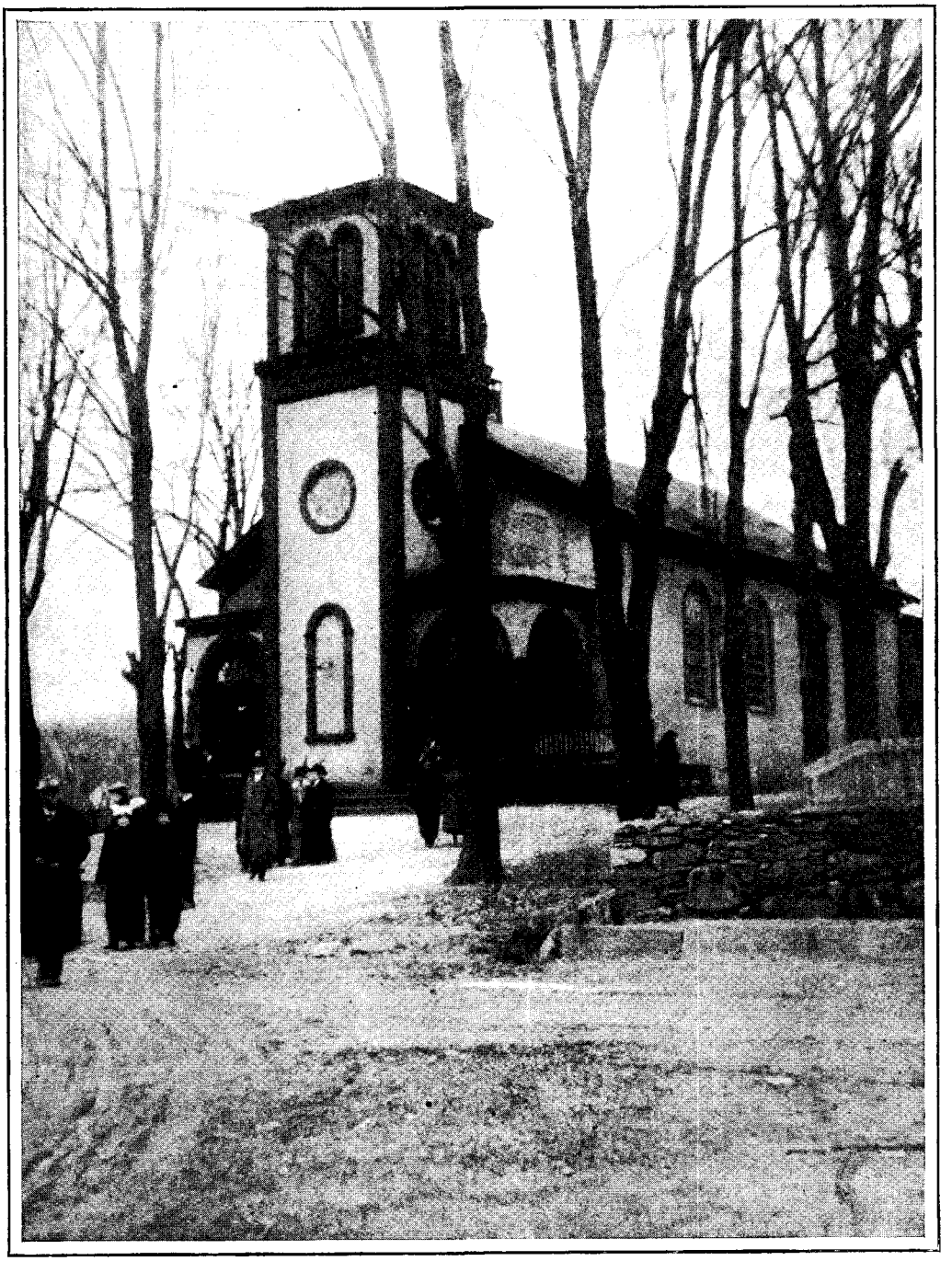

PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

THE CANTERBURY PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH

The pastor of this church had resigned and gone away. . . . A committee called and asked me to act as temporary supply. I replied that . . . I would preach for them on Sunday mornings, stepping aside at any time when they wished to hear a candidate. On this understanding I came. And they continued to look for a permanent pastor until 1887, seventeen years later. . . . During those seventeen years I was not installed over the church and I never joined the Presbytery." See pages 477-480

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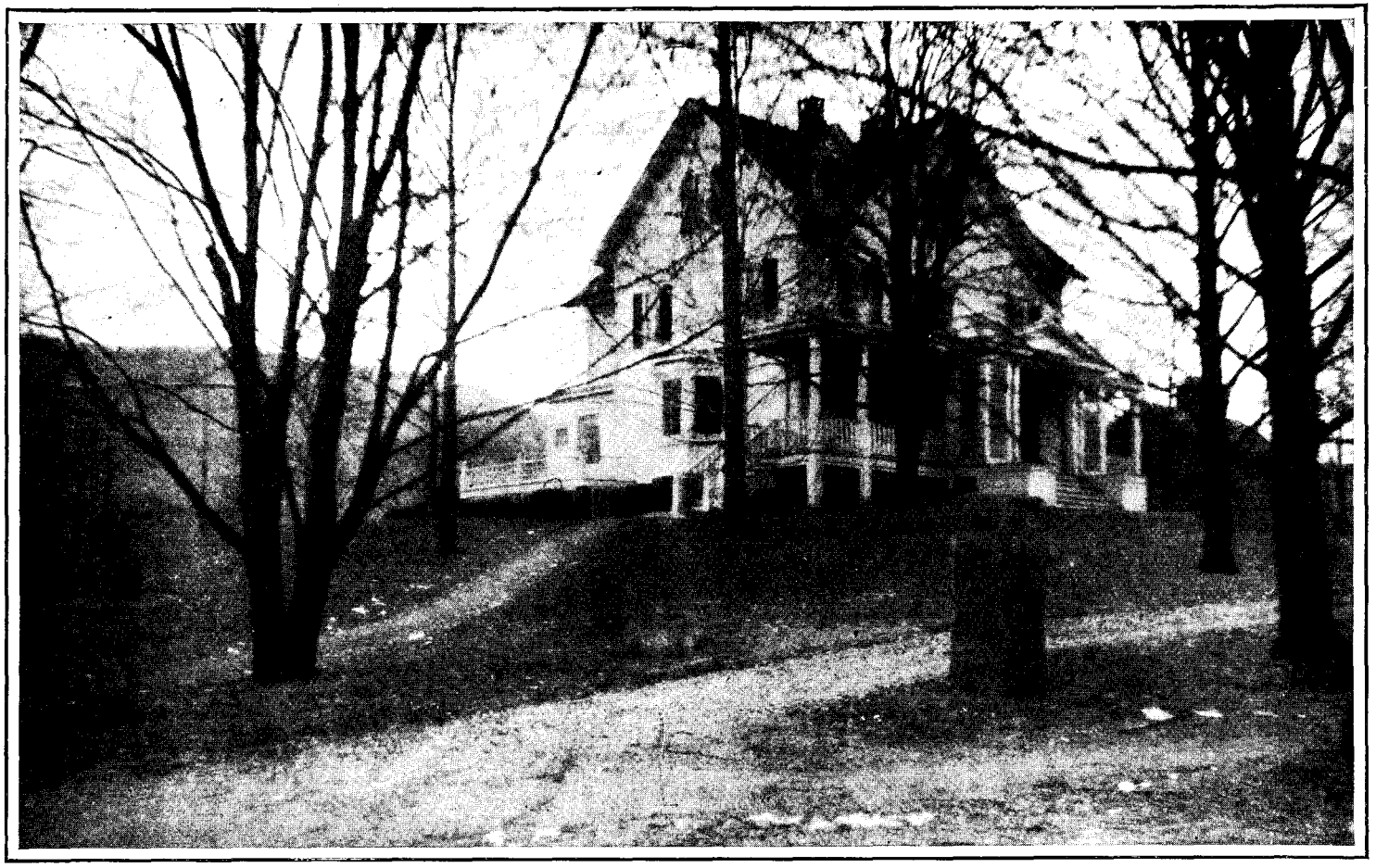

PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

DR. ABBOTT'S HOUSE, "THE KNOLL," AT CORNWALL-ON-HUDSON

"In March, 1876, I bought about two acres in the village of Cornwall-on-Hudson, and there built the house which has ever since been my home. . . . I do not know of any place so small which has an equal variety and quantity of shade trees, and, with possibly one or two exceptions, my wife selected, placed, and supervised the planting of them all. Here two of my six children and three of my grandchildren were born." See pages 480–481

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When Henry Ward Beecher was accused of a heinous crime, and the malodorous scandal was spread all over the English-speaking world by the newspaper reports of the protracted trial, it was Fletcher Harper who asked me to prepare a history of the case for "Harper's Weekly," and, while I hope that my history did something to correct false impressions, far more was done by the fact that so influential a periodical as "Harper's Weekly" showed by its report faith in Mr. Beecher. It was Fletcher Harper who engaged my Uncle John to write his "History of Napoleon Bonaparte," the first Anglo-Saxon publication which ventured to question the prevailing English estimate of the Emperor as only a successful freebooter. Mr. Harper's editorial judgment was justified by the extraordinary addition to the subscription list of the "Magazine" which this romantic story brought. It was Fletcher Harper, too, if a current legend be true, who once asked Mr. Justin McCarthy to send the house some short stories. "How many?" "As many as you like; fifty, if you will," was the jocose reply. And the fifty came promptly, and were all used in time in the Harper periodicals. It was Fletcher Harper who offered to my father the editorship of the "Magazine" when it was started; an offer which he wisely declined. My father was an author, not an editor, and the confinement to an office, the interviewing of authors, the endless correspondence, and the endless reading of manuscripts would have been very wearisome to him.

The connection which my father and uncle had thus made with Harper & Brothers made natural and easy my approach to the house. While still pastor of the New England Church I had prepared an edition of the sermons of Henry Ward Beecher by a careful examination of several hundreds of his sermons printed in different journals. My object was to present to the reader illustrative specimens of the great variety of types presented by Mr. Beecher's preaching. He was sometimes purely ethical, sometimes profoundly spiritual; sometimes his sermon was a prose poem, sometimes a compact theological treatise, sometimes almost exclusively exegetical. The reader of one of his ethical sermons might easily imagine him to be a disciple in the school of ethical culture. The reader of one of his spiritual sermons would class him with New England evangelists. The reader of "The Sepulcher in the Garden" would hardly imagine that the author of such a piece of emotive imagination could preach such a sermon as "The Incarnation of Christ." In making the selection of these sermons, Mr. Beecher, Mrs. Beecher, and some of Mr. Beecher's special friends were consulted, and the sermons, when selected, were first revised by me for correction of verbal infelicities incident to extemporaneous speech, and afterwards by Mr. Beecher. He always found it a more arduous and uninviting task to revise a sermon than to preach it, and it required a good deal of patient, persistent effort on my part to secure from him the revisions which were necessary. The work was finally published in 1868 in two volumes, and the money which was paid for it had probably gone largely into the savings bank. I had habitually acted on my father's principle of spending less than I earned, supplemented by my own principle of spending it after I had earned it. I probably, therefore, had in bank a few hundred dollars of reserve to draw on when I moved my family to Cornwall. I had also written a "Life of Christ," and some copyright on this book I had a right to expect in the course of the current year, 1869. Both of these books were published by the Harpers.

I was able to secure occasional opportunities to furnish articles for the "Magazine" made from English illustrated books. This practice has now, I believe, been discontinued. I am inclined to think that the discontinuance has been rather a disadvantage to the public. There are many thousands of Americans who would read with interest and profit a magazine sketch of William E. Gladstone based on John Morley's three-volume biography of Gladstone who would never look at that biography, still less read it through. The most notable contribution of this kind which I recall making for "Harper's Magazine" was an article on Mary Queen of Scots. In my capacity as reviewer I had read with care the major part of Froude's "History of England," especially the two portions of it which treated respectively of the reign of Queen Elizabeth and the reign of her predecessor, Henry VIII. Froude's story of the romantic life of Queen Elizabeth's rival, Mary Queen of Scots, fascinated me. I spent some weeks in studying all the books which I could find in the Astor Library bearing on that interesting epoch in English history, reading with an open mind alike the Protestant attacks and the Roman Catholic defenses. My conclusion was that Froude had truthfully inter-

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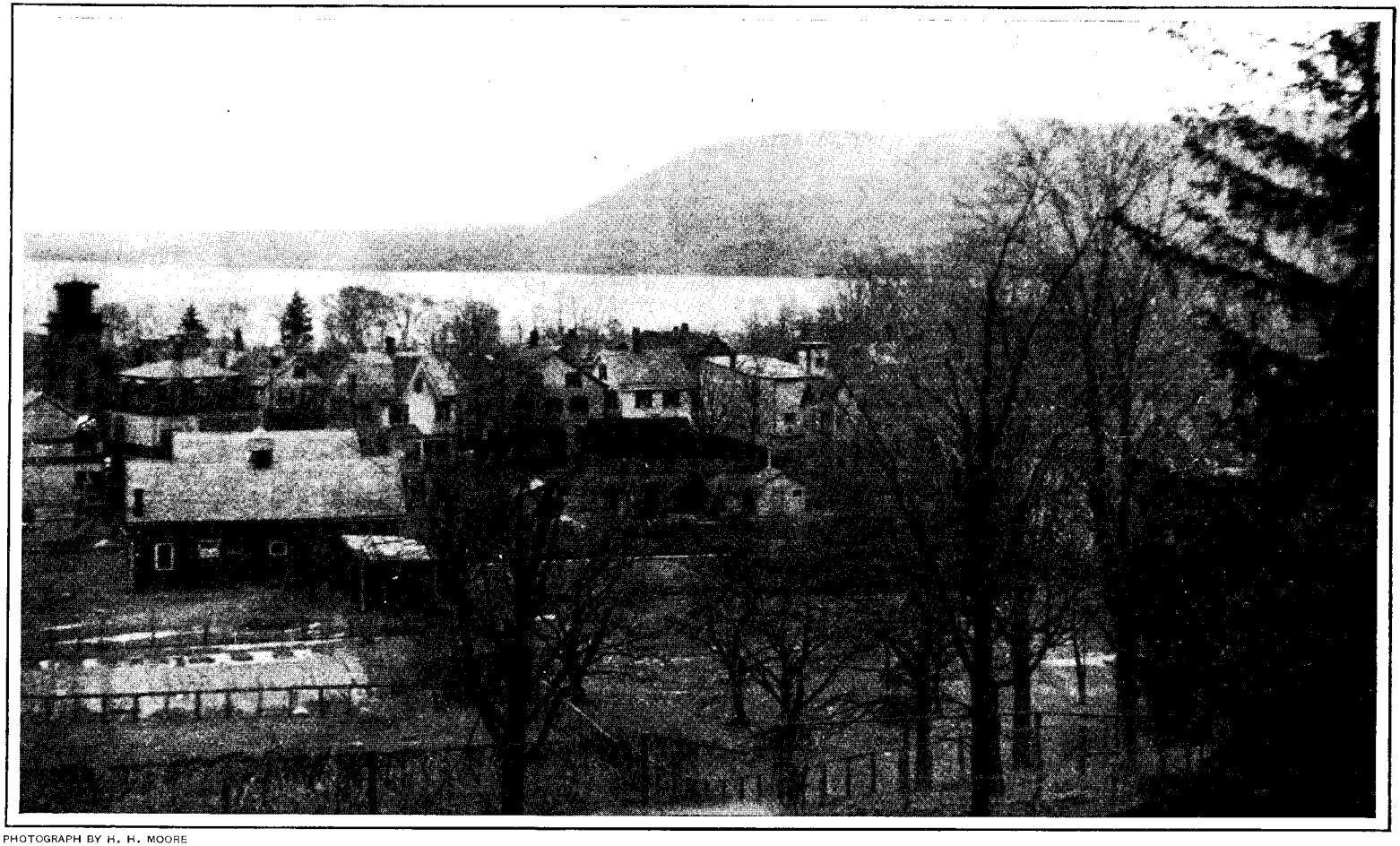

PHOTOGRAPH BY H. H. MOORE

THE VILLAGE AND THE RIVER

A view looking northeast from Dr. Abbott's house. In the foreground is a portion of the village of Cornwall-on-Hudson. The church on the extreme left is the one of which he writes: "For the first year after going to Cornwall I attended the Presbyterian church directly opposite my home. . . . I was thus a Presbyterian layman while I was a Congregational clergyman." The water in the distance is the Hudson River, "spread out before us like a lake" as it broadens into Newburgh Bay toward the north. In the background are the Beacons, a portion of the Highlands of the Hudson. See pages 476 and 480

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preted the life, in spite of some exaggerations for dramatic effect, and I embodied the results of my study in an article for the "Magazine" on Mary Queen of Scots, the substance of which I afterwards occasionally used in lecturing.

In this work as a magazine writer I learned a lesson from my father which has exerted a controlling influence upon me in my editorial life. Mr. Fletcher Harper asked me to write an article for the "Magazine" on ocean steamship travel. I told him that I could not do so because I had no other knowledge of the subject than such as I had gained from my one voyage across the ocean. "Then ask your father to write it," said he. This I did.

"Why do you not write the article yourself?" asked my father.

"Because I know nothing of the subject," was my reply.

"Then," said he, "you are just the one to write it."

"How is that?" I asked.

"Because," said he, "the object of the author of a popular magazine article is to give knowledge of a subject to people who are wholly ignorant of it. To do that he must know both the subject and the condition of ignorance. If he is familiar with the condition of ignorance, he can make himself acquainted with the subject; but if he is thoroughly familiar with the subject it is almost impossible for him to acquaint himself with the condition of ignorance."

Whether I wrote the article or not I forget, but this principle, laid down by my father, became my guide when later I took up editorial work. I have found it almost uniformly true that an expert cannot write on the subject with which he is familiar what readers who are not familiar with the subject can understand. The experienced but non-technical writer must provide the article, and it must then be submitted to the expert to make sure that he has fallen into no serious errors.

I wrote also occasionally for other periodicals—chiefly for the "Christian Union," the New York "Independent," the Boston "Congregationalist," and the Chicago "Advance," and on occasions did some editorial work for the "Independent" as a substitute for an absent editor.

For the first year after going to Cornwall I attended the Presbyterian church directly opposite my home, and there I took my letter on leaving the New England Church. I was thus a Presbyterian layman while I was a Congregational clergyman. To which denomination I belonged I did not know. On one occasion, attending some ecclesiastical gathering, a roll was called and each delegate was asked his denominational connection. When my name was reached, I hesitated a moment, and some one called out, "Put him down Christian." That suited me; how I was enrolled I do not remember. I have never cared for denominational differences; am a Congregationalist chiefly because I was born and reared in that communion; but should have remained contentedly in any other branch of the Christian Church which would have granted me its fellowship and allowed me to preach the truth as I understand it. My experience as a layman gave me a layman's point of view of some church questions generally discussed only by clergymen. I embodied the results in a series of letters published in the "Christian Union" over the *nom de plume* "Laicus." They were subsequently so connected by a thread of narrative as to make them a story, and were published in book form by Dodd, Mead & Co. in 1871, under the title "Laicus," and later were republished under the title of "A Layman's Story."

When I went to Cornwall in the spring of 1869, it was with the expectation that after five or six months in the country I should find without difficulty some parish and should return again to pastoral work. But my experience as a candidate, described in a previous chapter, had created in me the resolve that I would not, if I could avoid it, seek for a parish, and no parish came seeking me. I received one letter from California inviting me to try an experiment there, but the distance was too great, the journey too arduous, and the hazard too considerable. I had read in "David Copperfield" the story of Mr. Micawber's experiences to good purpose, and had no inclination to wait for something to turn up. While I was doing what I could to meet immediate expenses by newspaper and periodical writing, I projected some plans for something more permanent. I wrote a volume retelling some of the Old Testament stories, treating them as foreshadowings or illustrations of New Testament teachings, and entitled it "Old Testament Shadows of New Testament Truths." I edited a volume of devotional readings selected from the published and unpublished sermons of Henry Ward Beecher, which was entitled "Morning and Evening Exercises." And I pre-

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pared "A Religious Dictionary" in one volume, largely made by condensation from existing Biblical and theological dictionaries. The views on questions of authorship, date, and canonicity of Biblical books were those generally entertained by evangelical scholars at that time. They are not those which I now entertain or think are generally entertained by the best scholarship. There were, however, some original contributions to this "Dictionary." The articles on the different Protestant denominations I wrote myself, basing them on a fairly careful study of denominational literature, and submitting each article to a recognized scholar in the denomination for verification and correction. As a statement of denominational principles, I think these articles have stood the test of time. In this work my wife actively co-operated, examining and comparing authors, revising and condensing articles from other publications in English, and sometimes writing at my dictation. I also employed a young man, a graduate of Oberlin, who lived in my house, tutored some of our children, and aided me in this editorial work. These three works were published by the Harpers. I also prepared a volume of readings selected from the Bible and prayers selected from a large range of devotional literature entitled "For Family Prayers," which was published by Dodd & Mead.

A larger work which I undertook was a "Commentary on the New Testament," for the publication of which I arranged with the house of A. S. Barnes & Co. My object was to furnish for laymen or ministers unfamiliar with the original tongues a commentary on the New Testament which should be primarily interpretative, that is, which should endeavor to explain the meaning of the New Testament as an embodiment of fundamental ethical and spiritual principles, without going into minute grammatical interpretations of words and phrases. For my work on this commentary I depended on a couple of hours in the morning before the family were up. After I accepted the pastorate of Plymouth Church, in Brooklyn, in 1888, when I rarely could get to bed before eleven at night, I found it impossible to use these early morning hours, and consequently the commentary was never completed, though by special arrangement a volume on Paul's Epistle to the Corinthians was prepared and added to the preceding volumes by the Rev. Dr. John E. McFadyen.

If this life had involved my abandonment of preaching, I should not have been content; for I like to preach better than to listen. But presently an opportunity was offered for me to return to the pulpit without abandoning my literary engagements.

The twin villages Cornwall and Cornwall-on-Hudson (as they are distinguished by the Post-Office Department) are so closely connected as to appear to the visitor to be one, though there was, and still is, a good-natured rivalry between them. Each has its post-office, its school, its stores, its church or churches. Cornwall-on-Hudson has but one, a Presbyterian church, though at that time there was also an Episcopal chapel. Between the two villages is a Roman Catholic church, the largest and probably the most flourishing church in the town. In the village of Cornwall, popularly known as Canterbury, with a population adequate to support one church efficiently, were five—Methodist, Baptist, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, and Friends'. The Presbyterian church had been weakened by the colony which some years before had left it to establish the church in Cornwall-on-Hudson. It had been further weakened by deaths and removals. It had a congregation of about fifty, and paid with difficulty a salary of five or six hundred dollars. Such a church has no choice but to take as its pastor either a young man from the seminary, who comes that he may learn how to preach, or a man who by reason of age or ill health is unable to do the full work of the pastor. The former has no experience; the latter no ambition. The pastor of this church had resigned and gone away. In the spring or summer of 1870 a committee called and asked me to act as temporary supply. I replied that my engagements were such that I could assume no pastoral duties, I could not even promise to lead the weekly prayer-meeting; but I would preach for them on Sunday mornings, stepping aside at any time when they wished to hear a candidate. On this understanding I came. And they continued to look for a permanent pastor until 1887, seventeen years later, when I went to Plymouth Church.

My wife did the pastoral work which I had told the committee I could not undertake. She taught in the Sabbath-school, played the organ as a substitute on occasion, made the acquaintance of the new members of the congregation and cultivated the acquaintance of the old members, made our afternoon recreative drives opportunities for occasional

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calls, and kept me acquainted with the life and the needs of the parish. I had a number of old sermons, now long since destroyed, but I made no use of them. My wife's suggestions, my contact with a great variety of men in my somewhat busy life, and my work on the "Commentary" supplied me with more themes than I could possibly make use of. I recalled a story I once heard of an old minister who gave to his young son just entering the ministry this sage advice: "If it comes Sunday morning and you have been so busy about your pastoral work that you have had no time to get up a sermon, just go into the pulpit and talk religion to 'em, sonny." I acted on this advice. I worked all the week on the "Commentary," the "Religious Dictionary," and whatever other enterprises I had on hand, and on Sunday morning went into the pulpit and talked religion to such as cared to come and hear.

Soon some of the summer residents began to come, first as visitors, then they took pews. The friendship formed between my family and one of these summer families resulted, as will hereafter appear, in determining for me my life vocation. There was a successful boys' boarding-school on the hill eight hundred feet above tide-water, three miles from the church. This school began to attend the church. The growth of the congregation was gradual; but before long the little church was well filled, sometimes, on bright days in the summer, crowded. One enthusiastic friend, who, I fear, measured the value of the church services by the size of the congregation, a not altogether unusual standard of measurement, was naïvely delighted when, as occasionally occurred, he could feel himself obliged to go to a neighboring house and borrow some chairs to seat strangers in the aisle. The increased congregation brought with it increased financial resources. The church was freshly painted within; the old pulpit, a long counter behind which the minister stood like a salesman or a waiter in a restaurant, was taken away and a modern pulpit like an Episcopalian reading-desk, a gift of a summer resident, was put in its place; new hymn-books were purchased. The music, which was wholly congregational, was led by a volunteer choir, but there were no anthems except when some summer visitors volunteered a solo or a quartette, an addition always welcomed. The church began to contribute money to the missionary enterprises of the Presbyterian Church—not much; but it was something to have a church which it had been feared would have to ask for home missionary aid offering some aid to other churches. A ladies' missionary society was organized, of which my wife was an inspiring member, and a missionary box was sent out every year. The only begging the church ever did was the annual notice from the pulpit inviting contributions for this box. I remember the gales of laughter in the secret councils of the Ladies' Aid when a discarded wig was sent for the home missionary box. What to do with it was a serious problem. To return it to the donor would make a tempest in a teapot—a very small tempest, but then it was a very small teapot. Destroy it and keep the secret? When was such a secret in a village church ever kept? So, finally, with much misgiving, it was put in the box and sent along, and presently came back a letter of special gratitude from the bald-headed missionary to whom it had come as a veritable godsend!

During these seventeen years I was not installed over the church and I never joined the Presbytery. I do not think that at any time in my life I would have been willing to subscribe to the Westminster Confession of Faith, which seems to me a hyper-Calvinistic document in its affirmation of divine sovereignty and its practical denial of free will. I agreed with the New School interpretation of the Bible and with the Old School interpretation of the Confession of Faith. But I was loyal to the Presbyterian Church, secured from my little congregation contributions to the Presbyterian boards, and saw to it that the church was represented at the meetings of the Presbytery. I do not doubt that some members of that Presbytery were more than doubtful of my orthodoxy. But, if so, they kept their doubts to themselves; no suspicions ever disturbed the peace of my parish.

The old pastor and his wife, long before this time retired from active service, but still living in the village and attending the old church, could not have treated me with more affection had I been their own son. Father Silliman, as he was affectionately called, was a quaint figure, with his Sunday blacks on, his white beard, his infirm but spirited person, sitting in the haircloth armchair beside the pulpit, facing the congregation. Thus age and youth combined in giving the Sabbath message, and I sometimes wondered if his presence was not more effect-

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ive than my address, if the service did not illustrate the saying that "Speech is silver and silence is golden." I was accustomed, when coming up from New York to the evening meeting, to take supper at their house. And, though I know that some of my teaching ran counter to their cherished convictions, they never attempted to interfere in the slightest degree with my liberty in the pulpit. My experience in a great variety of pulpits—in village, town, and city, in East and West and South, before orthodox and before liberal congregations—has convinced me that the pulpit is the freest platform in America. The conditions of freedom are simply two: courage in one's own convictions and courtesy toward the convictions of all ecclesiastical neighbors, whatever those convictions may be.

I wrote no sermons. I had no time to write. It is true that it takes more time to prepare an extemporaneous than a written address. But the time for the written address must be taken at the desk; the time for the extemporaneous address may be taken anywhere—on the cars, in the street, in bed, before going to sleep or when first awaking. Besides, to read an essay to fifty or a hundred of my personal friends and neighbors seemed a very formal and unfit proceeding. Several themes would come to me during my week's work. One of these I would select, generally by Saturday. On Sunday morning I would arrange the thoughts which had been collected during my fragments of meditation, put them in order on a sheet of note-paper or on the pages of a sermon note-book, and then go into the pulpit to talk upon this theme to my congregation of a hundred in the church as I might talk upon it to two or three in my parlor.

I soon learned what I regard as the first essential of an effective sermon. It must be an address *to* a congregation, not an essay *about* a theme. It must be addressed primarily not to the intellect but to the will, and in this respect it differs from a lecture, which is addressed primarily not to the will but to the intellect. It is like a lawyer's speech to a jury, not like a professor's lecture to a class. The minister should never ask himself, What theme interests me? but, What theme will profit my congregation? He should be able to answer to himself the question, What do I want to say to this people, at this time, and why do I want to say it? The first requisite of a good sermon, therefore, is a clearly defined *object;* and this object, in the preacher's mind, should determine his choice of a subject. When this simple but fundamental truth first dawned upon me, I was humiliated to find how many sermons I was preaching without a well-defined object. And to cure this defect I began to write down in my sermon note-book before the theme or the text the object which led me to select them both. This I can best illustrate by a verbatim quotation from my note-book. I take almost at haphazard three sermons:

June 23d. *Object.* (1) To deepen and spiritualize the conviction of moralists, *e. g.* . . . (2) Comfort and inspire over-conscientious and burdened Christians, *e. g.* . . .
Matt. vi. 19.

Where I have here inserted marks of ellipsis there were in my note-book the names or initials of certain individuals in my congregation as types of the kind of person I wished to influence.

July 7th. *Object.* To intensify sense of divine presence and glory, awe of, love for, faith in Him.
Reading Acts ch. xvii, Psalm cxxxix.
Text, Jer. xxiii. 24.
Object. To denote clearly the characteristics of Christian, *i.e.* Christ-like, sorrow; both as a comfort for those that *are* in trouble, and as a preparation for those to whom trouble may yet come.

Often, as in this latter case, the text was not chosen until the sermon was prepared. Occasionally there was no text. The habit thus formed has remained with me throughout my life. My method of preparation for any sermon or address is to consider, first, not my subject, but my object—that is, what I want to accomplish. Next I consider what thoughts and what organization of those thoughts will be best fitted to accomplish that object. And, third, in arranging those thoughts I endeavor to make of them not a chain but a river, that is, to make my argument cumulative, not merely logical, so that the last thoughts will be not merely the conclusion but the climax of the thoughts that have gone before. This I generally do without the use of pen or pencil. Usually, however, I jot down in a note-book or on a sheet of paper the major points in the address after I have arranged them in my mind, though I never have this paper before me in speaking. It is much more important to keep my mind in touch with my auditors than in touch with my theme. Only once since

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1870 have I written a sermon which I intended to read. On the Sunday following the death of Henry Ward Beecher I was invited to preach in his pulpit, and I did not think I could safely trust to extemporaneous address. I therefore wrote the sermon with care. On Friday or Saturday I read it to my wife and waited for her verdict. "Lyman," she said, "I think that would make an excellent article for the 'North American Review.'" I was not so stupid as not to discern the criticism concealed in the compliment; I made an analysis of the article, and gave the sermon without a note before me. It was really extemporaneous, for I have no verbal memory, and I made no attempt in the pulpit to recall what I had written in the study. The sermon was taken down in shorthand, and when its publication was called for it was printed from the stenographer's notes. As a sermon the extemporaneous address was far better than the written essay. That was twenty-seven years ago. Very rarely since then have I spoken from manuscript, and then only when I believed that a carefully written paper deliberately read would carry more weight than an extemporaneous address; as when I was asked to discuss before the New York Chamber of Commerce a new charter proposed for New York City, which I believed would be almost wholly an instrument for evil; when I was asked to give to a committee of the United States Senate my view on the best way for dealing with the problem of monopoly; and when, on my installation, I was called on to give to the Congregational Council some account of my theological belief and religious experience. In these cases I believed a paper read would carry more weight than an address delivered. Occasionally, though very rarely, I have written an address and given it to the press, but always with the warning that it was only the outline, not a correct transcription, of what I should say. The public speaker of to-day is given a choice: he may write a paper for the newspapers and read or deliver it to the audience, or he may make an address to the audience and leave the newspapers to get what they can through their reporters. I have invariably made the latter choice. The result has been some misreports and a good many non-reports; but neither result has given me any concern.

To return to my narrative.

At the end of a year and a half I had convinced myself that I could earn a support for myself and my family with my pen. My wife's health was restored. My children—I now had four—were thriving in the country air. Neither my wife, my children, nor myself were fitted for a city life. The family temperament was a nervous temperament, and life in the city was too tense for us. I resolved to make Cornwall our permanent home, to buy or build a house, and trust to my ability to make an income with my pen. My father was not a rich man. But his expenses were few, and he was still actively engaged in authorship. He pursued a plan with his four boys which in its prudent generosity and its forethought was characteristic. He loaned his sons on their interest-bearing notes money which they might need from time to time. He trusted us to pay the interest, so that in one sense the loan was an investment. When he died, these notes would be a charge against the estate, and the loan in no case amounted to more than the son's share in the estate. He loaned me money enough, with what I could borrow on mortgage, to enable me to build. In March, 1870, I bought about two acres in the village of Cornwall-on-Hudson, and there built the house which has ever since been my home. It is about two hundred and fifty feet above the river; Newburgh Bay lies spread out before us like a lake to the north; the Highlands of the Hudson, rising twelve to fifteen hundred feet from the river's edge, are to the east, and the west gives us a view of a fertile and prosperous valley. There were only two or three trees upon the place, one of which, for sentimental reasons, I, or rather my father, preserved by building a mound of earth about it when the grading would have exposed the roots.

My father, as I have said in the opening chapter, was a natural landscape gardener. He took no interest in raising flowers, fruits, or vegetables. "There is no objection to a fruit tree," he said, "if you can be sure that it will bear no fruit. But if you plant a fruit tree for the fruit, the winter will kill it, or the frosts will kill the buds, or blight will attack the leaves, or worms will burrow in the trunk, or summer drought will shrivel the fruit, or, if it survives all these dangers, the boys will pick the fruit for you some night and you will find an empty tree in the morning." We nevertheless tried a peach orchard, and the first winter verified his predictions—it killed the trees. A grapery, more venera-

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ble than fruitful, we turned into a garden, which now, under the wise management of my friend and caretaker, the gardener, yields us all the summer vegetables we need except potatoes, and enough left over to supply us with canned vegetables for the winter. Of the pear trees which we planted only one survives. There are cherry trees which give us an abundant crop; and an old apple orchard, which I later added to the homestead, gives us apples in the fall and a wealth of apple blossoms in the spring. My father forgot that fruit trees give blossoms as well as fruit. He spent hours with me in his visits in the spring and fall in planning the roadway and the paths and counseling about shade trees. My wife was an apt pupil. I do not know of any place so small which has an equal variety and quantity of shade trees; and, with possibly one or two exceptions, my wife selected, placed, and supervised the planting of them all. In this home two of my six children and three of my grandchildren were born. Here all of my children spent their childhood until they went away to school or college. To Cornwall three of my four sons have returned and built their country homes. And here four of my children and all my grandchildren live in the summer, and some of them throughout the year. Building when I did was something of a venture. But I hold it to be a sound economic principle that when a man has good reason to believe that his home is likely to be permanent, it is prudent economy for him to estimate what rent he can pay and then build or buy a home, provided the interest and taxes do not amount to more than the rent he can afford. The experience in my case serves to justify this principle.

The house finished, my life in it was characterized by a degree of regularity which I had not before attempted. I rose at half-past four or five, made myself a cup of coffee, and with that and a roll for an early breakfast worked upon the "Commentary" until the family breakfast at eight. From nine until a two-o'clock dinner I worked in the library upon the "Religious Dictionary" or upon my book reviews for "Harper's Magazine," or any chance newspaper or magazine article which I might have on hand. The afternoon, after dinner and an hour's sleep to make up for the early rising, I gave to the children, or to work upon the grounds, or to a drive with my wife. I bought a canoe with air chambers in bow and stern, making it a lifeboat, and went out in it with my children on the river or up the creek. The boys made a skiff themselves on a pattern suggested, I believe, by "St. Nicholas." We carted it over the hills to a pond in the Highlands where for two or three successive summers we camped out for a few days. The wooded hills about Cornwall with their abandoned wood roads afford fine opportunities for pedestrian excursions, and these constituted a common summer recreation. In the summer, three days in the week, the afternoon was devoted to a swim in the Hudson or in the mouth of the creek emptying into it. I taught the four boys to swim, and they all swim better than I can. It is a part of my philosophy that the sons and daughters should surpass their parents, else this world would make no progress. Not until after the boys had grown up and gone out into the world did my wife confess to me that she experienced something like a dread every time we started for the river, and always a sense of glad relief when she heard our voices as we ascended the hill. I was generally in bed and asleep before ten, in preparation for early rising the next day. If there were guests, I left my wife to entertain them. She had no inclination for either early retiring or early rising; and I was, and still am, inclined to both. From the very beginning of our Cornwall experiment I earned enough for our comfortable support, but I was always a little anxious over the question what would happen to us when the "Dictionary" was finished and the demand for my casual articles for the magazines and newspapers came to an end. My wife laughed at my fears, but I often told her that I could trust the Lord for everything but money. I have never been able to see what right any man has to live on other people and trust the Lord to pay his debts. These fears were removed in the spring of 1871 by an invitation from a wholly unexpected quarter.

The American Tract Society was organized in 1825 for the purpose of creating a religious publishing house National in scope and catholic but evangelical in spirit. In 1870 it had become one of the important publishing houses of America. It printed tracts and sold them at cost for gratuitous distribution. It printed books especially for use in the church and Sunday-school, and published several periodicals, including two or three in foreign languages. The publications were under the control of a Committee repre-

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senting different Protestant evangelical denominations, and its constitution provided that no publication should be issued by the house to which any member of that Committee objected. Its publication work was carried on under the direction of a business manager and three secretaries, the latter dividing among themselves the supervision and selection of the publications. This society in 1870 proposed to add to their other periodicals an illustrated weekly which should differ from other religious weeklies by being illustrated, and from other illustrated weeklies by being distinctly religious. The Committee proposed to me to organize and become the editor of this new publication.

The invitation appealed to me very strongly. The position would give me a stated and regular income; it would relieve me from the necessity of finding a market for my literary wares in different periodicals and among different publishers, a task which was peculiarly obnoxious to me; and, if the enterprise succeeded, it would give me a position of influence and usefulness. There were two obstacles in the way of acceptance. I had settled upon Cornwall as my home and had built my house. The location chosen had proved of inestimable value to the health of my wife and children. To protect their lives and health was far more important than any position however influential, than any work whatever its promise of usefulness. But Cornwall was too far from New York and too inaccessible to make daily trips possible. In the summer I must come and go by a boat which did not reach New York until nearly eleven o'clock, or by train on the Erie Railroad from a station three miles and a half from my house. This difficulty was overcome by securing in connection with the editorial office a bedroom where I could spend the night whenever so inclined, getting my meals, as I had done when a college boy, in restaurants. The other difficulty was more serious. I believed then, as I believe now, that the editor-in-chief of either a daily or a weekly publication must be something of an autocrat. He must be able habitually to pass upon manuscripts offered for publication without taking time for consultation with others; and not infrequently he must decide, not only upon specific editorial utterances but upon questions involving general policy, without waiting for the approval of associates. The Tract Society had never been used to any such method of publication. Every question had been submitted to and discussed by the secretaries, and unanimity of opinion had practically been made a prerequisite to publication. The secretaries were naturally desirous to maintain this principle, partly perhaps because they were unwilling to relinquish their customary authority, but chiefly, I am sure, because they were prudently afraid to repose in a single and comparatively unknown associate a degree of power which no one of them had ever exercised. Upon this question we had repeated conferences. I explained to the Committee the grounds for my convictions. I told them that I thought that the objections of the secretaries were not unreasonable, but that if they wished an editor to edit the new periodical by consultation they would have to look for him somewhere else. To all compromises which clouded or obscured this fundamental principle of final authority in the editor-in-chief I interposed a persistent negative. At length my principle was accepted. I was made editor-in-chief, the whole responsibility of the journal was placed upon me, and I entered upon my duties with the good will of my associates, though not without some fears on their part. Having obtained this authority, I was cautious in its exercise, and customarily conferred with the secretaries respecting important articles and editorials whenever I could do so without injurious delay. Of course the constitutional provision of the Society that nothing could be published to which any member of the Publication Committee objected remained unaltered, and every week the advance sheets of the "Illustrated Christian Weekly" were sent to each member of the Publication Committee for their consideration. Never during my administration was any article returned with an objection; and I suspect after the first few weeks of publication the advance sheets were rarely looked at. The members of the Committee were busy men.

The avoidance of all friction during the five years of my editorship of the "Illustrated Christian Weekly" was partly due to the mediating temperament which I had inherited from my father. I have always been willing to yield upon questions of detail if I can have my way upon questions of prime importance. This confession may sound to my readers somewhat naïve, but I have generally found that by conceding to my critic words, phrases, or illustrations, I

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can get his consent to fundamental principles, as my father did in the incident connected with his ordination narrated in Chapter VIII. But this freedom from friction was certainly not less due to my associate in the editorship, Mr. S. E. Warner. He was an old employee of the Tract Society, and had edited and, if my memory is not at fault, continued to edit the "American Messenger," a religious monthly which served the purpose of a tract. Mr. Warner and I were of different temperaments, happily for both of us. He was a man of infinite patience, unwearied in detail. I was so eager to reach my result as to be often careless of detail. He would often spend as much time in the weighing of a word or a phrase as I would spend in writing a paragraph. This was work he liked to do, and I liked to have him do it. He was familiar with the traditions of the Society and knew instinctively what word or phrase might offend the sensibilities of the secretaries, the Committee, or our constituents. I soon learned to write my editorials with joyous rapidity and leave corrections to him, almost invariably accepting them without a question, and often leaving to him the final reading of the editorial while I took my train for home. After the work was once fairly organized and my personal relations were adjusted, I continued to do most of my editorial writing and practically all the preparatory study in my library at Cornwall. It was my editorial theory, which Mr. Warner's association helped me to carry out, that the editorship of an influential journal needs two minds, one careless of detail, the other devoted to detail. If the editor-in-chief lives and carries on his writing in his office, the details come to him whether he will or no, and he finds in the constant interruptions of the office little opportunity for the study of great questions and less opportunity for meditating on them.

The "Illustrated Christian Weekly" no longer exists. After I left the Tract Society in 1876 to accept the editorship of the "Christian Union," the "Illustrated Christian Weekly" was continued under other editorial direction for ten years; it was then sold and conducted as a private enterprise for a few years more, and was finally discontinued. One cause which led to its demise was the increasing tendency of the community to abolish the old-time distinction between the religious and the secular, a tendency which has brought about the diminishing circulation and influence of most of the church papers and has led the public more and more to look in undenominational and secular periodicals for information concerning religious movements and for discussion of religious problems. In its bearing on my life the editorship of the "Illustrated Christian Weekly" was chiefly valuable as an apprenticeship for the larger work which, wholly unsuspected by me, lay before me. What that work was and how I came to enter upon it will appear in the next chapter.

COMMERCE AND FINANCE

A MONTHLY ARTICLE BY THEODORE H. PRICE

NOTES ON RECENT ECONOMIC NEWS AND EVENTS

REACTIONS AND COMMERCIAL LOANS. THE PRESIDENT AND THE SHERMAN LAW. OUR INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNT CURRENT. THE ADVENT OF THE "JITNEY"

THE Law of Reaction and Commercial Borrowing. As we listen to the swelling chorus of business optimism inspired by our large exports and increasing bank deposits, it is well to remember that a melody without its antiphony is incomplete, and that we must from time to time expect to hear the contrapuntal notes that prejudice, disappointment, and ignorance emit.

No picture is satisfying without contrasts, no progress is without its reversals, no life without its moments of depression, and no forward movement in business without its periods of reaction.

Those who have followed the articles upon

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commerce and finance that have appeared in The Outlook since the fateful days of last August will recall that optimism has been persistently encouraged, not only because it was reasonable, but because under the circumstances it was a duty to the country and humanity.

When an alarm of fire precipitates a panic in the theater, it is the duty of every man who can keep his head to restrain the stampede, that orderly use of the emergency exits may be possible. This was done last summer in both England and America. But few will ever realize what a complete wreck of the world's financial machinery was averted by the interposition of the British Government's guarantee of millions of private debt and the promptitude with which the Treasury Department and the banks of the United States acted in issuing emergency currency and clearing-house certificates.

The largest amount of emergency currency outstanding at any one time was $369,000,000, and the maximum amount of all clearing-house certificates outstanding, as ascertained by Mr. Gilpin, of the New York Clearing-House, was $195,000,000.

It should never be forgotten that we are indebted to the foresight of former Senator Aldrich for the legislation which made the issue of the emergency currency possible, and the whole Nation owes him a debt of gratitude for a measure that prevented a wholesale failure of our banking institutions from which we should have been years in recovering.

We have yet to learn the identity of the financial general who had the courage to propose that the British Government should become the guarantor of the enormous amount of private acceptances outstanding in London at the time war was declared; but whether it was the idea of one man or many, the service rendered to the world's merchants and bankers was incalculable, and the precedent established is one that will probably make panics as unlikely in the future as epidemics of smallpox have become since Jenner's famous discovery of vaccination. In fact, one of the consolations of the war is that it has discovered so many ways of mobilizing credit and increasing the solidarity of banks, and that it has inaugurated a new financial era, the dawn of which is only just becoming manifest in the largest bank deposits and the lowest interest rates ever known in both England and America, despite the enormous borrowing of all the European nations and American purchases since the first of January of new American bond issues and foreign securities that represent the investment of at least $400,000,000.

It is the extraordinary ease with which these great flotations have been absorbed that suggests the possibility of some reaction or at least the wisdom of caution in assuming that, in the face of humanity's greatest catastrophe, the aspect of the financial markets will continue to be as placid as it now appears. This is not to be pessimistic, but simply to point out that no sea can be always calm, and that even the pacific effect of oil artificially applied is likely to disappear in time.

The practical value of these observations is in their application, and to those business men who would apply them it may be said that the present is a good time in which to borrow money for those who have legitimate use for it and whose credit is good.

In London ninety-day acceptances are selling at 1⅜ per cent, and in New York prime bankers' acceptances, which are coming into increasing favor as instruments of credit, have found a market at 2½ per cent. These rates are below the cost of assembling the funds loaned, and with money, as with commodities, it is generally safe and profitable to buy at less than the cost of production.

In thus quoting the market for "bankers' acceptances," it may be explained that in the United States their use has been made possible only by the Federal Reserve Law and the new banking laws of the State of New York, and that to the average commercial borrower they are not available except by the payment of a commission to the accepting banker, which, though moderate, should be reckoned as increasing the rate of interest at which the money is borrowed.

The practice of borrowing money by the use of acceptances has been followed for centuries in England, but as it is somewhat novel in America and promises in time to supersede the less desirable and serviceable "single name paper" in the negotiation of commercial and financial credits, the writer will be glad to send a pamphlet more fully describing it to any one sufficiently interested to send his address and four cents in postage to him at 24 South William Street, New York City. This offer is made because it is believed that the use of the "bankers' acceptance" is one of the greatest reforms that has ever been initiated in American banking

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practice, and that its extension will be of great advantage and result in great economy to both the borrower and the lender of money.

Co-operation, Combination, and the Sherman Law. President Wilson is evidently revolting against the absurdity of the Sherman Law, about which so much has been heard for the last ten years and so little before that time, although it was enacted in 1890 and was in force when the American Tobacco Company and the United States Steel Corporation were formed. It had no terror for the organizers of these so-called "Trusts," but many of them have lived to be prosecuted under the very law that they considered a dead letter and unenforceable because it was opposed to the higher natural law which made combination and co-operation essential to human progress in every stage from the family to the nation and from the individual to the corporation and the trade union.

The inherent absurdity of the law literally interpreted was made perfectly clear by Judge Lacombe, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, in the Tobacco case when he said that it prohibited a combination between two teamsters each hauling goods across a State line; and it was not until the Supreme Court read the so-called "rule of reason" into a statute that was otherwise unreasonable that its enforcement in the courts became possible.

As it now stands, it means the regulation of combination by prosecution and the determination of the reasonableness of each particular combination by an expensive and harassing procedure that may utterly destroy an organization which in the economy it secures and the service it renders may be of great public benefit.

As construed to-day, the law makes the Attorney-General practically the judge of the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the business methods of every enterprise that employs the energy or thought of more than one person; for although the presentments of the Department of Justice are subject to judicial review, the consequences of prosecution, with the attendant delay, cost, and uncertainty, are more fatal to most concerns than instant disintegration and reorganization would be. The power to persecute that is implied in such discretionary power to prosecute is not the least of the evils arising from the effort to make an impossible law possible; and the fact that the business men of the country have so patiently endeavored to conform to the spirit of a measure the letter of which neither lawyers nor courts could determine is strong evidence of the law-abiding disposition of those who have been successful in America.

It now seems probable, however, that the Sherman Law will not long remain, as at present, a menace to the combination and co-operation necessary for the accomplishment of big things.

In his Indianapolis speech the President acclaimed the necessity of "team work" in politics, and by an entirely logical mental process he has now come to see that team work is necessary in business if the opportunities awaiting the people of the United States are not to be missed. In his address to the Chamber of Commerce of the United States on the evening of February 3 he said:

> There is a specific matter about which I for one want your advice. Our anti-trust laws apparently—I say apparently, because I see the Attorney-General is present, and I am not sure whether I am right—the anti-trust laws of the United States apparently make it illegal for merchants in the United States to form combinations for the purpose of strengthening themselves in taking advantage of the opportunities of foreign competition.
>
> That is a very serious matter, for this reason: There are some corporations and some firms, for all I know, whose business is great enough and whose resources are abundant enough to enable them to establish selling agencies in foreign countries, to enable them to extend the long credits which in some cases are necessary in order to keep the trade they desire; which enables them, in other words, to organize their business in foreign territory in a way which the smaller man cannot afford to do.
>
> His business has not grown big enough to permit him to establish selling agencies. The export commission merchant, perhaps, taxes him a little bit too high to make that an available competitive means of conducting and extending the business.
>
> The question arises, therefore, how are the smaller merchants, how are the younger and weaker corporations, going to get a foothold as against the combinations which are permitted and even encouraged by foreign governments in this very field of competition?
>
> American merchants feel that they are at a very considerable disadvantage in contending against that. The matter has been many times brought to my attention, and I have each time suspended judgment, because in this matter "I

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am from Missouri," and I want to be shown this: I want to be shown how that combination can be made and conducted in a way which won't close it against the use of everybody who wants to use it. A combination has a tendency to exclude new members. When a group of men get control of a good thing, they do not see any particular point in letting other people into the good thing.

What I would like very much to be shown, therefore, is a method of co-operation which is not a method of combination; not that the two words are mutually exclusive, but we have come to have a special meaning attached to the word "combination." Most of our combinations have a safety lock, and you have to get the combination to get in. I want to know how these co-operative methods can be adopted for the benefit of everybody who wants to use them, and I say frankly, if I can be shown that, I am for them.

If I cannot be shown that, I am against them; and I hasten to add that I hopefully expect that I can be shown.

What has got to pervade us like a great motive power is that we cannot and must not separate our interests from one another, but must pool our interests. A man who is trying to fight for his single hand is fighting against the community and not fighting with it.

It will be noticed that the President in these remarks addressed himself to the question of our foreign trade, and expressed a hopeful expectation that he could be "shown a method of co-operation that was not also a method of combination," although admitting that the two words were not "mutually exclusive."

To most minds, however, the two words are practically synonymous, and in fact are so described in Flemming's "Synonyms," while "co-operation" is defined in the "Century Dictionary" as "the act of working together toward one end, or of *combining* for a certain purpose."

In thus unconsciously revealing the identity of co-operation and combination, and the morality and desirability of applying the principle that they both describe to our dealings in the export trade with the people of other nations, the President has laid nakedly bare the essential absurdity of the Sherman Law, and has, it is to be hoped, opened the way for its repeal and the substitution of some means of regulating the use of the increased power that comes with the combination and co-operation that are certain to develop, law or no law, among a people who are taught from their earliest infancy that "united we stand, divided we fall."

If it be not unethical to co-operate and combine for the extension of our trade overseas, can it be criminal to do the same thing in our domestic commerce? Certainly not, for it is impossible to believe that the President thinks we should apply one code of business morals to our dealings with those who are not Americans and another to our inter-State commerce.

No, the truth is that, like every one else, the President has come to see that combination is an essential of success in all things, and that small enterprises grow to bigness only through co-operation and co-ordination. For the past ten years or more an effort has been made to prove the reverse, and although this was patently impossible, it was necessary that some authoritative recognition of the fallacy of a law that attempted it should be secured.

With this the President has provided us, and it is to be hoped that it will now be but a short time until the Sherman Law is repealed, and some more direct and less capricious and uncertain method of restraining the power of combination when it becomes ruthless shall be devised.

The Balance of Trade and the Account Current of the United States.

Export shipments of merchandise from the United States during December exceeded imports in value by $132,000,000.

In January the excess was approximately $150,000,000.

For the first week of February the excess is $40,000,000, indicating a total for the month of at least $150,000,000.

These figures are generally accepted as assuring a credit "balance of trade" for the calendar year 1915 of not less than $1,000,000,000, and some expect much larger figures.

The two "banner years" of the past in this respect were 1901, when exports exceeded imports by $664,000,000, and 1908, when the excess was $660,000,000. It is, however, estimated that in those years Americans temporarily or permanently abroad spent at least $250,000,000 of this balance for their pleasures or purchases in Europe, which item we can almost entirely eliminate from this year's account.

As compared with the best of former years, therefore, it appears probable that our

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credit with the other nations of the world for the year 1915 will be as follows:

On merchandise account, say....	$1,000,000,000
By reduction in American expenditures in Europe, say.....	200,000,000
By interest payment on American securities bought and European securities purchased, possibly..	25,000,000
Balance applicable to payment of American debt to Europe and interest thereon.....	$1,225,000,000

In 1908, the last "banner year," the account stood as follows:

Balance on merchandise account.	$664,000,000
From which deduct American expenditures in Europe, say.....	250,000,000
Leaving net applicable to payment of American debt to Europe and interest charges thereon.	$414,000,000

It is, therefore, a fair assumption that our balance on the "international account current" for the year 1915 will exceed the previous record by at least $800,000,000. For most of this we shall have to take either our own securities or the obligations of the various European governments.

We cannot get gold in any large amount, and we really do not want it.

What we are doing is in effect exchanging merchandise at war prices—in the case of wheat, $1.50 per bushel—for interest-bearing securities at the depreciated values caused by the war borrowing. If arithmetic is not a fallacious science, the exchange should be highly advantageous to the United States.

We have already taken over $100,000,000 of European promises to pay issued by the various nations at war, and it seems probable that the amount will be largely increased in the near future.

If this record can be maintained for a few years, we shall become a creditor instead of a debtor Nation at the clearing-house of the world, which would then naturally change its headquarters from London to New York or perhaps Chicago, as some of the bankers of that city predict.

The "Jitney" has grown in a few months to be a powerful rival of the street railway. "Jitney" is slang for a nickel. Some one in the West who had an idle automobile used it in opposition to a trolley line and charged five cents for the ride. The result was profitable. Other users of cars followed suit. Now, in a hundred or more cities, all sorts of autos, from the five-seat passenger car up to buses with accommodations for from twelve to twenty persons, are operated over regular routes and on regular schedules. In some places there are women chauffeurs.

One traction company in the State of Washington reports a reduction in earnings of $72,757 in December, 1914, as against December, 1913, owing to the "jitney." A North Texas company reports a loss of $22,315 in the same month. A South Texas company reports a loss of $11,425.

To-day there are more than four thousand "jitneys." Public utility commissions are devising rules for their regulation, and public service corporations are doing all in their power to suppress them.

The "jitney," or something like it, will develop into an institution for short-haul traffic. It makes better time than the electric car, has no strap-hangers, and takes passengers on and lets them off at the curb. The fare is as low as that on the trolleys. As between the taxicab with extortionate rates, and the trolley car with its discomforts and overcrowding, there is a large field for any conveyance that is cheap and comfortable.

Incidentally, the "jitney" may end the agitation that has been under way for public ownership of urban transit lines.

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THE NEW BOOKS

New International Encyclopædia (The). Second Edition. A—Foraker. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York.

The cyclopædia-maker's work never ends. Almost the first sentence that catches our eye in this new edition of this standard work indicates the need of a newer edition, at least of the first volume. It is: "The profound peace enjoyed by the people of western Europe and America in recent years," etc. (article Architecture). It is only fair to say, however, that the publishers plan to include a comprehensive article on the war in Europe in the last volume of the work, and that forthcoming volumes will, it is stated, be brought down to date as they are published. This is really a new edition, from new (not patched) plates. This fact may not at first be apparent to the casual reader. The type is the same, but the page is a little longer. Many of the pictures are the same, and in some cases the plates show slight wear; but there are a large number of fresh illustrations, and some of these are from photographs, to the manifest advantage of the work (compare the photograph of Anthropoid Apes in the new edition with the artist's sketch in the old). The essential features of arrangement and treatment are the same; and, while two of the editors of the first edition are no longer living, the remaining editor, Mr. Frank Moore Colby, has, with the assistance of Mr. Talcott Williams, of the Pulitzer School of Journalism, carried out in the new edition the admirable plans adopted in the original work.

Some new features which are discovered on examination are: greater compactness, made possible by the use of the popular thin India paper; the breaking up of articles into subdivisions indicated by headings in heavy type, a distinct improvement; new maps, essential to indicate the discoveries and governmental changes of the last decade; the inclusion at the beginning of each volume of the names of the writers of important articles. Valuable features of the first edition are expanded or brought up to date, as in the system of cross-references and the bibliographies. An illustration of the value of the new cross-references to American readers may be seen in the article on Bach: "For the cultivation of Bach's music in America, see *Bethlehem Music Festivals*." There are many minor improvements, and the proof-reading has been more careful than in the first edition—though a glance at the article Caricature shows misprints of Hopper for Opper and Outcalt for Outcault.

The work of revision in the volumes of the new edition that have thus far been published has been in the main carried out with excellent judgment, so far as our examination has gone. The article on Aeronautics, for instance, has been expanded from eight pages to nineteen; an article on Captain Amundsen appears for the first time in the new edition; many verbal infelicities have been changed for the better, as in the statement, "Baiæ has attained some importance as a *war harbor*," the italicized words being now "naval station." Even in articles which required no revision as to facts, changes of phraseology or of characterization have often been made with advantage—compare the revised article on Alexander the Great as an example.

The first edition of this cyclopædia has long been considered indispensable to every public library, every newspaper, and every private citizen who has the reading habit; the merits of the second edition, with the thorough revision that is now in progress, will compel progressive owners of the old edition reluctantly but promptly to displace it in favor of the new one.

With Poor Immigrants to America. By Stephen Graham. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

Having accepted Upton Sinclair's "The Jungle" as truth, Stephen Graham came to America with a company of Russian immigrants to see for himself what America was. Quite unable to rid himself of his preconceived ideas, though a traveled Englishman, he writes an entertaining narrative of his brief stay in our land. He is a maker of amusing paradoxes and epigrammatic contrasts. Russia is the most mystical of lands, America the most material; Russia is the living East, America the living West, as India is the dead East and Britain the dying West. In England "hope has died down." The American and British peoples are more than an ocean apart. "Our backs are to America," he says, "and we are looking towards Russia." This was written in Russia and published there before the war, be it remembered. Ellis Island is almost an insult to Europe. Russia is the land of charity—except to the Jew. America is raging against drink and refuses Gorky. Russia "loves the drunkard," and her most precious possessions are the sick, the imbecile, the criminal, the poor outcast woman.

In the light of recent events, it really seems that Mr. Graham will be forced to frame a new set of brilliant phrases. He believes America is swamped in commercialism; yet he says the noblest epitaph for an American is, "He sacrificed himself to a cause," while for an Englishman it is, "He knew his job." He finds the Grand Central Station a great silent temple, and rather hopes to see New Yorkers worshiping there and running the trains into the secular-looking Cathedral of St. John the Divine. On his walk to Chicago he met strange experiences—lack of country hospitality and lack of

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beauty of scenery. Religion here is "a sort of ethical rampage," and he seldom met man or woman who stood in humble relation to God or the mystery of life. The rich are signing checks and the hospitals are receiving them.

The American man behaves like a machine. "On none of the occasions when the Fatherland requires his sober human judgment can he stand as a man," and he is spoiled for true citizenship. The author was amused in a Baptist church at the "big bath behind the pulpit, where the converted miners walked the plank to the songs of their fellow-worshipers." "Little is given anonymously in the United States," he says, noticing doubtless the rare appearance of "Anonymous" in lists of relief subscriptions. He finds in the lean American (the fat one he calls "a white nigger") a passion for collecting autographs, curios, etc., which seems to be scalp-hunting in disguise.

Mr. Graham has returned to his well-loved Russia to find it a prohibition country! He has a perfect right to prefer it to America, and gives his reasons. To him "success is a reproach, and failure, danger, calamity, incertitude is a glory;" he goes from "the religion of philanthropy to the religion of suffering—home once more."

Yet he found but one old Russian peasant who was on his way home. All the "exploited immigrants" seemed to prefer America, and were fast becoming machines like the rest of us.

Abraham Lincoln. By Rose Strunsky. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.25.

Perhaps the best expression of the motive that caused Mrs. Strunsky to add another to the many lives of Lincoln is found in her own words, which disclose her contention. Lincoln "is no longer the hero of the school-boy patriot or the fanciful romantic figure directed by mystic forces far above the understanding of average man. He has become the best expression of a period in American history to which the small capitalist, dispossessed by the monopolies of the East, is eager to return, and they are calling upon him to lead them out of Egypt again. The new alignment is between the West and the South against the moneyed East." How the author reaches this interpretation of Lincoln's character—"a follower, never a leader"—may be ascertained by the reader of this large, well-written, and one-sided volume.

Layman's Apology. By Gilbert Milligan Tucker. R. G. Badger, Boston. $1.

This little book is a keen and vigorous justification of the central teachings of Christianity as fundamentally sound. Its argument from natural law thoroughly exposes the weakness of the claim that they conflict with either physical or moral science. It is somewhat weakened by one extravagant claim: "How, without miracles, could a real revelation ever be made?" Here and there one suspects that the writer is still encumbered with relics of deistic theology, *e.g.*, when deducing the soundness of evangelical "orthodoxy" from its apparent coincidences with the facts of nature. Here the unethical attempt is made to separate moral obligations into two classes—duties to God and duties to man—with a conceivably perfect fulfillment of the one while neglecting the other. On the Bible as "a book success that needs explaining" Mr. Tucker is at his best. Hospitably recognizing a less perfect revelation in other religions, he anticipates such an abandonment of man-made additions to the Christianity of Christ that it will win universal allegiance.

Thirty Years in the Manchu Capital: In and Around Mukden. By Dugald Christie, C.M.G. Edited by his Wife. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. $2.75.

For a generation Dr. Dugald Christie has been in and around Mukden. He went thither as a medical missionary and was the only physician among a handful of foreign residents. He has written a worth-while book about his experiences. It is a record of militant Christianity, and should be an inspiration to similar sacrifice on the part of young men, who ought to be willing and glad to devote themselves to so sublime a profession. Incidentally the book is of value in giving us side-lights on the Chino-Japanese War, the Russo-Japanese War, and the Boxer Rebellion. Finally, the book is of value in affording us an opinion as to the future of China.

Dr. Christie sturdily affirms that the recent upheaval indicates that the Chinese people are by no means moribund. It was only the dynasty that was. At the same time he admits that it will take time for the new thoughts and aspirations to penetrate and permeate the hitherto inarticulate mass of the people. Nor does he overlook the dangers as well as the benefits which are a part of the change in the principles of government. The most pressing danger of all, he asserts, is the lack of moral principle in the rising youth of New China. While education is the keynote of the day, there must be something deeper. As might be expected, Dr. Christie finds that something in Christianity. Without it we may well tremble at the evolution of a powerful China.

Gleanings from Chinese Folk-Lore. By Nellie N. Russell. Compiled by Mary H. Porter. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. 75c.

This volume contains a brief historical sketch of the life and work of Miss Nellie N. Russell, glowing tributes by her friends as to her character and labors, and stories of Chinese folk-lore which Miss Russell had gathered together during her residence in China. It also relates several of her experiences with the people for whom she labored. Miss Russell's plan was to edit these manuscripts at her leisure, but she passed away before this work could be

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accomplished, and her friends have published them practically as they were found. The proceeds from the sale of this book are to be devoted to the work in which Miss Russell was deeply interested, "The Hall of Enlightenment," or Ming Lung Tank, in Peking, a growing social center which exerts an influence upon the lives of the women of that city.

Java, Sumatra, and the Other Islands of the Dutch East Indies (Modern World Series). By Bernard Miall. Translated by A. Cabaton. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.50.

The reprint in a cheaper form of Mr. Cabaton's description of the Dutch East Indies should be chronicled. In some respects the Dutch East Indies represent the most successful of colonial enterprises. We do not hear much about these islands. Like the mother country, they pursue the even tenor of their way placidly. The future of the islands is better assured under Dutch control, Mr. Cabaton believes, than under English, German, French, or American. Like all Asiatic colonies, the Dutch Indies are tending towards autonomy, and, like the rest, they cannot realize it unaided. Filipinos, Malays, and Javanese alike, he thinks, are incapable of realizing without help the true idea of nationality. They are incapable of gaining freedom by themselves except at the cost of falling back into anarchy.

Mormonism To-Day and Its Remedy. By the Rev. John D. Nutting. The Utah Gospel Mission, Cleveland, Ohio. 10c.

This pamphlet, whose author has known Mormonism intimately for twenty years, deserves general attention. He exhibits its despotic church system, clutching the laity in the grasp of the priesthood, and formidable in political power; its unscrupulous financial system, worked by the heads of the Church for self-enrichment by control of an enormous income; its polygamous social system, its President having five families within a quarter of a mile from its Temple; its pagan doctrine of God as a polygamous deity, once living on this earth as Adam. This feature was set forth in a volume by a Mormon theologian, reviewed in The Outlook ten years ago. Though polygamy were suppressed by dint of even Constitutional prohibition, the Mormon cancer is incurable till its barbaric paganism is eradicated. Meanwhile its missionaries annually lure thousands of dupes. The public schools are in its control, and Christian schools and churches get hold of few but non-Mormons. The only remedy which, in the author's opinion, long experience makes hopeful is presented in this pamphlet.

What Women Want. By Beatrice Forbes-Robertson Hale. The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.25.

While confessing herself a partisan, Mrs. Hale shows a breadth of mind and a sanity of speech and view that must commend her book to all who desire to understand the so-called woman movement. In the author's argument, feminism as she presents it is closely and logically connected with true democratic ideals. Avoiding all heat, clearly discriminating between different methods, and reviewing with remarkable skill the history of the movement, Mrs. Hale has given us what is probably the best presentation yet made of equal suffrage. She sets herself to explain, not to convert. She is eloquent at times, moved to humor or pathos, and shows always the respect for her readers that comes with the training of a talented, successful artist. Naturally, many of us must take issue with some of these ideas and conclusions, but that is exactly the reason why we should be willing to read the book and why the book is written.

Lone Star Ranger (The). By Zane Grey. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.25.

An irresistible inherited desire to kill is a novelty in fiction. The outlaw hero here is, at first at least, a decent, brave young man, and his killings are never unprovoked or careless. First as "outlaw" and then as ranger he never kills any but "bad men." Yet always he feels in the back of his mind a tendency, inherited from his father, a famous gunman, which makes him want to kill. The psychology of this is rather interesting, but for most tastes the plot and incident are too gory to make agreeable reading.

Sun Lore of All Ages. By William Tyler Olcott. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.

This is a collection of myths and legends about the sun and sun-worship. The subject is rich in material and is co-extensive with the world's recorded history. Childish and naïve as is much of the early mythology about the sun, its symbolism and poetry rapidly increase in consistency and beauty. The author has collected his material from a wide range and has combined and interpreted it in a scholarly and yet readable manner. There are many photograph pictures.

Christian Life in the Modern World (The). By Francis Greenwood Peabody. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.25.

Materialism, slain in philosophy, is still potent in practice. The veteran Professor of Christian Morals in Harvard University calls attention to the fact that social evolution has reached the point "where the hope of social stability and peace depends on the practicability of the Christian life in the modern world." This is cogently demonstrated, point by point, for realization in the family, in the business world, in the making of money, in the uses of money both in spending and in giving, in the State, and in the Church. The urgency of this realization is emphasized by an evidently nearing crisis, presenting the alternatives of the

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moralization of property or its confiscation—the humanization of industry or industrial war.

The auspicious fact is the new social conscience, "the most characteristic discovery of the present generation"—evidently a return toward the teaching of Christ and his ideal of a fraternal world. But this great return a large part of his Church has yet to make ere it can lead the world to him. It is still in large measure intellectualized, externalized, unsocialized, and in that measure inefficient in the modern world—a non-conductor of power and life from Christ. "A cleaner life in the family, a more fraternal world of business, the purifying of money-making, and the moralizing of politics—all these are waiting for that antecedent cleansing of the Church which may make it an effective instrument of the great salvation." In our abundant sociological and religious literature there is no better presentation than Dr. Peabody has made of the "new evangelism" that is to save the world.

Christianity and the Social Rage. By Adolph A. Berle, A.M., D.D. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. $1.50.

If but half of what Dr. Berle affirms be true, American civilization might seem to be on the downward road. Demoralization, he says, is conspicuous everywhere—in the Church, the schools, the universities, the courts, finance, politics, labor, the healing art. A social rage seems to burn in the author himself as he depicts what he sees, "the religionizing of lawlessness of every kind, and the religious quack setting the pace for the rest of humanity." In Europe's outbreak into primitive savagery he hears a warning to set our own house in order. Such a warning is indeed to be heard. What nationalistic militarism has come to in Europe is what individualistic commercialism has been tending to here. The same in aim, the exploitation of the weak by the strong, they are the same in ultimate issue—a social cataclysm.

Comparing this volume with "Christianity and the Social Crisis," and other such books, we find Dr. Berle agreeing with Professors Rauschenbusch, Mathews, and others, that the modern Church has abdicated its responsibilities of moral leadership and is suffering from a moral anæmia menacing to religion and democracy alike. He differs from them in the unrelieved blackness of present conditions as described by his caustic pen. No arraignment of social evils so sweeping as his is found in volumes which point to these and also to the hopeful movements astir to end them. These, we are finally told, are now starting, and will issue in the regeneration of the Church and of civilization. But where to recognize these and their leaders in the midst of our "religious anarchy" and its humbuggery we are left uninformed. In this lack of definite information the book is not encouraging except to the courage born of an apparently desperate situation.

Life of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield (The). By William Flavelle Monypenny and George Earle Buckle. Vol. III. The Macmillan Company, New York. $3.

Mr. Buckle's continuation of the late Mr. Monypenny's biography of Lord Beaconsfield begins with this volume, which carries the story through the important period when Disraeli first won leadership in the House of Commons and attained Cabinet office. Mr. Buckle evidently intends to adhere closely to the lines laid down by Mr. Monypenny. There is the same enthusiastic but not undiscriminating appreciation of Disraeli, the same emphasis on self-portraiture through the medium of hitherto unpublished correspondence, and the same tendency to make the biography a Parliamentary history from the Tory point of view as well as a study of Disraeli himself. And since reliance is largely made on new documentary material, the historian will find this volume most helpful, particularly in its account of the formation of the short-lived Derby-Disraeli Government of 1852, and the failure of Derby to form another Administration after the breakdown of the coalition Government three years later. In this connection the outstanding features, so far as Disraeli himself is concerned, are his surprising readiness to make self-sacrifices in the interest both of his party and of his chieftain, Derby, his puzzling attitude on the paramount tariff issue, and the extent to which Parliamentary distrust of him was shared by Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort. In the end, as is well known, the Queen esteemed him above all her other Ministers; but at this period she was openly antagonistic to him, as her communications to Derby reveal. Of Disraeli's views on foreign politics Mr. Buckle has much to say, and a point of special interest at the present moment is Disraeli's appreciation as early as 1848 of the future importance of Germany as a maritime power and England's most dangerous rival in the North Sea. Mr. Buckle, like Mr. Monypenny, devotes much space to Disraeli's literary activities, and particularly to the autobiographical elements in his writings. It cannot be said, though, that, varied as are the sources on which he draws, he has succeeded in leaving any vivid impression of Disraeli the man. It is always, or nearly always, Disraeli the statesman who looms before us from these pages. This incessant subordination of the human to the political interest is the one conspicuously weak point in his volume.

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BY THE WAY

Lynn, Massachusetts, has a public forest of about 2,000 acres. It was decided to help the unemployed and harm the gypsy and brown-tail moths by clearing up this forest. An appropriation of $10,000 was made and 200 men set to work. In order to keep them at work when the appropriation is exhausted, a campaign called the "Buy-a-cord-of-wood" movement is to be started. This practical suggestion might well be used, with variations, by other enterprising communities.

In an era of fluctuating prices it is interesting to learn that the rates for carrying vehicles on New York City ferries have not been changed since 1849—a period of sixty-six years. This fact was elicited during proceedings brought to adjust the rates for transporting automobiles.

Apropos of the paragraph in this department January 13, about the need of a safety device to prevent automobiles from accidentally starting while they are being "cranked up," a subscriber writes describing such a device. "When the lever is forward," he says, "gears are in mesh, brakes are off, starting crank is separated from motor, thus making cranking impossible. When lever is back, brakes are on, gears are out of mesh, and motor ready for cranking." The contrivance, it is stated, can be applied to various makes of cars.

On a recent bitter night in New York City a generous helper of "the bread line" contributed 750 pairs of warm mittens to the poor fellows shivering in the cold. Among the "poor fellows" on that particular night, the paper quoted states, were scattered 254 women, many of them with babies in their arms.

A writer in the "Christian Register," recalling memories of Dr. Edward Everett Hale, tells of an inadvertent slip by him such as occasionally happens to the most practiced speakers. Dr. Hale said at a crowded meeting, "My friends, I regret to tell you that no more chairs must be brought in. It is against the law to block the chairs with aisles." General laughter ensued, which mystified Dr. Hale till some one explained to him the inversion of the words, when he joined in the laugh, with the remark, "I see! I put the cart before the horse!"

The last survivor who struck a blow which drove the gold spike at Roseby's Rock, West Virginia, December 24, 1852, completing the world's first trunk line and the local road to Wheeling, died in Baltimore recently. His name was Michael Kirby, and he had been in railway service fifty-eight years.

The "Harvard Alumni Bulletin," in discussing and analyzing the list of schools from which Harvard undergraduates who have gained distinction in scholarship have come, says that as between the public and the private or endowed schools the honors seem not far from evenly divided, and it adds: "It is one of the most interesting signs of the times that in certain private schools the winning of college distinctions by former pupils is celebrated by a school holiday." Here is a hint that might be taken by schools generally as a means for investing scholarship with some of the popularity that athletics ordinarily seem to monopolize.

Readers are familiar with the somewhat extravagant claims of magazine correspondents who have made "pin-money" by unusual industries carried on at home; it is refreshing to read in a woman's magazine the letter of a contributor who says that her plan was based on the fact that physicians are often so busy that they have no time to do their own bookkeeping, and that for one such she undertook to do this work for the sum of "five dollars a month." The work took only a small part of her time, while the sum named seems really worthy to be called "pin-money."

In Bagdad, says a writer in the "National Geographic Magazine," "often you may see a fine Oriental rug lying flat in the filth of a narrow street, ground beneath the tramp of men and beasts; but there is method in this. . . . Since an 'old' rug is worth more, wily brokers have hit on this shameful way to make a new rug look old; the latest art effort thus soon becomes a 'rare old rug,' so far as the eventual owner in America knows."

The Department of Agriculture urges farmers to cultivate what it calls a "two-family garden"—that is, one that will supply the home table and leave enough surplus to sell to some family in town that would like to have products direct from the farm at least once a week. Not only would this establish an outlet for vegetables, but it might bring producer and consumer into relationships through which various other farm products could be marketed.

Mechanical means for removing snow and ice in the yards and terminals of the Canadian Pacific Railway have of late been employed, according to a writer in the "Railway Age Gazette," and this has largely reduced labor charges. "At two of our terminals," the writer continues, "natural gas is used to clean switches and the cost is thereby reduced to a mininum."

In the picture published in The Outlook, February 10, showing the laying of the cornerstone of Wellesley College's new building, the name "Miss Norton" was printed for that of Mrs. Frank Mason North, an alumna, trustee, and former teacher. The photograph as furnished by Underwood & Underwood was labeled incorrectly, to their regret and ours, hence the mistake.

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